

Vol. 4. C. c.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE:

Exhibiting a View of the
NATURAL AND CIVIL HISTORY
OF THE SEVERAL
COUNTRIES and KINGDOMS:

THEIR PRESENT
CONSTITUTION and FORM of GOVERNMENT; their
CUSTOMS, MANNERS, LAWS, and RELIGION; their
ARTS, SCIENCES, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE;
their MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS, PUBLIC TREA-
TIES, and POLITICAL INTERESTS and CONNEXIONS.

To which is prefixed,
An INTRODUCTORY DISCOURSE on the
Principles of POLITY and GOVERNMENT.

By M. E. TOTZE,
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History in the University of Butzow, and Duchy of Mecklenburg.

Translated from the GERMAN

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And Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries.

V O L. I.

L O N D O N,
Printed for J. NOWRSE, Bookfeller to HIS MAJESTY
MDCCCLXX.

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TO HER
SERENE HIGHNESS
ULRICA,
PRINCESS OF MECKLENBURG.

MADAM,

THE following Work having
been first published in your
native tongue, under the auspices of
that excellent Prince, the Duke, your
brother, may, with some propriety
A 2 claim

claim the patronage of your Highness, when cloathed in a language for which you have conceived so extraordinary a predilection. It is indeed a circumstance highly glorious to the literature of this nation, that a Princess of such amiable accomplishments, should dedicate her leisure hours, which too many of her sex are apt to waste in trifling amusements, to the study of our language, so as to delight in the best English authors, and to read them with a true taste for their beauties. The subject of this performance may also render it not unworthy of your notice, since you have been ever ready to improve your mind, not only with the perusal of works of polite literature, but likewise

DEDICATION

wife with the nobler studies of religion, history, and politics. I am too sensible of your delicacy to indulge a vein of panegyric on this occasion, by enumerating the many virtues which have rendered your Highness the delight and ornament of a court, renowned for its urbanity, and the generous encouragement of true piety and learning. History may afford a better field for so pleasing a topic; here I am confined, and cannot praise without offending. I shall, therefore, content myself, at present, with declaring, how happy I am to have this opportunity of paying a distant homage to your princely perfections, and of publicly testifying the pro-

DEDICATION.

found respect and esteem with which
I have the honour to subscribe my-
self,

MADAM,

Your HIGHNESS's

Most obliged, most devoted,

And most humble Servant;

THOMAS NUGENT.

THE
AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THE advantages of political knowledge having been so well explained by many able pens, I may save myself and the reader the trouble of repeating what has been already said upon that subject; I shall therefore be satisfied with laying before him a succinct account of the method and scope of this work.

Besides the introductory principles, in which the plan of the whole performance is stated, and the maxims and technical terms of the science are explained, I have prefixed a short dissertation on Europe in general, as well to assist the

A 4 reader

reader in forming a clear idea of the present state of our quarter of the world, as to give a connected view of several necessary and useful observations relative to this subject, which must have been otherwise totally omitted, or scattered up and down with less method and congruity. I am nevertheless apprehensive lest this precaution may have occasioned another inconveniency, namely, that of some repetitions. Care, however, has been taken, that these should be as few as possible, and for these few I entreat the reader's indulgence.

In the description of each state, I have made use of the most authentic writers and informations that I could possibly procure, and these I have punctually quoted, not only as vouchers for what I advance, but for the convenience of such as may be desirous of a more circumstantial acquaintance with the matter in question.

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The objects deserving notice are, in every state, so numerous, that I could only sketch the outlines of them. In some, however, and especially the forms of government, I have been more explicit; and together with their constitution, I have given an account of their principal revolutions, and shewn how the present system came to be established. This to me appeared the more necessary, as in all European states, and even those where the form of government has lately undergone a total change, some practices and usages still obtain, the cause and origin of which are to be found only in the antient polity. The knowledge of them will contribute to a better understanding of historians, particularly in points relating to reasons of state; as those especially of the middle ages, for the greater part, contain only jejune narratives of transactions, without one word

con-

THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

concerning the causes. This will sufficiently evince, that politics and history mutually tend to illustrate each other.

As I have been circumstantial on the antient forms of government, so in the article of monies I proposed to shew their former standard and value. The writers of all nations, and especially those of the middle ages, mention several kinds of money now no longer current, but without specifying their value. I took some pains with regard to this article, in order to remove the uncertainty in which it leaves many curious readers; but, for want of proper information and helps, I have not been able to accomplish my desire. Histories of antient times likewise mention monies in their modern names, as Reals and Maravedis in Spain, and in France Livres, Sols, and Deniers, but with an infinite difference in value from that which they bear at present; another
source

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source of perplexity to readers, as not acquainted with the proportion between the antient and the present coins. I could, on this account, have wished myself in a capacity to have indicated the gradual alteration of the standard in every state, as then the reader might have easily compared the value of the old monies with that of the present, and thus calculate the amount of whatever sums occur in histories and records. But this, from the cause abovementioned, I have not been able to compass, except in the French, English, and Swedish coins, and these, I own, but very imperfectly.

At the end of every chapter I have enumerated the several treaties concluded between the respective powers, at one view pointing out both the mutual relation between different states with regard to certain rights and obligations, and at the same time their greater or lesser share in the general transactions.

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THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

One apology I have still to make, and that is concerning the title of this work, as promising a description of all the several states of Europe: whereas for want of information adequate to that extent, I am obliged to confine my plan to those states, which have a considerable influence in the general affairs of this part of the globe. However, to complete my plan, I propose, if this Essay be approved, to publish the State of Germany, with the addition of a brief account of the temporal and spiritual monarchy of the see of Rome, as having always acted a leading part in every important transaction in the several governments of that communion.

THE

T H E

TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

THE following work was originally written by that learned Professor Mr. Edward Totze, a name well known to many English gentlemen, who have travelled in Germany. The polite behaviour, exemplary morals, and extensive erudition of this judicious author, render him so deservedly the object of public notice, that it is proper I should give some account of him, for the information of such gentlemen as have not been abroad. Such a precaution, indeed, appears in some measure necessary with respect to readers of every class, since, according to the observation of a celebrated writer, men seldom peruse a book with pleasure, till they have some knowledge of the character and personal qualities of the writer.

Mr. Edward Totze, the ornament of Germany, which gave him birth, was led by his
early

early inclinations to the study of the law, which he pursued with the most assiduous application at Jena, Helmsted and Halle: but he had a particular taste for the nobler parts of jurisprudence, the law of nature and nations, the study of politics and history. In order to increase the inlets to knowledge, by the perusal of the best books published in foreign countries, he was at the pains of learning most of the modern European languages. He at last settled at Gottingen, where he translated several English books into German, among others Lord Anson's *Voyage round the World*, and the learned Dr. Campbell's *Lives of the English Admirals*. In the year 1755, he was chosen secretary to the university of Gottingen; and in 1761, he was invited by the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin to fill the place of Professor of History in the university of Butzow, founded by his serene highness in the year 1760. There he distinguished himself by his great assiduity and care in his public department, and employed his leisure hours in completing the present work, which had been the chief object of his attention during a considerable number of years. It was published at length in 1767, and soon met with the universal approbation of the literati of Germany. The preceding year, viz. 1766, I had the honour of getting acquainted with the learned author in my tour through
through

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through Mecklenburgh, and have ever since thought myself happy in cultivating his friendship. This gave occasion to his sending me a copy of the present work; and, upon an accurate perusal of it, I thought I should do a considerable service to this kingdom by translating it into English.

Amongst other circumstances, which concur to render this a valuable performance, there is one that cannot fail to recommend it to the curious. Mr. Totze has been at the utmost pains and expence in procuring a true state of facts from every government in Europe; so that the accounts of the several military and civil departments may be depended upon. The list of the military forces of Russia he received from the learned Mr. Busching, who lived several years at Petersburg, and is well acquainted with the state of the Russian empire. With regard to the affairs of Denmark, it will be proper to mention, that at the author's request I had the honour of waiting upon that worthy minister Baron Dieden, envoy extraordinary from the court of Copenhagen; this visit procured me those remarks which occur at the end of the chapter of Denmark, and were written by the learned and very ingenious Mr. H——. The notes interspersed throughout the work, were designed for the use of those who may happen to be desirous of a more critical

tical knowledge of the subject; and some were added by the translator, to rectify a few errors that have escaped the pen of our learned professor. Besides these instances of the author's care to render his performance every way worthy of the public esteem and approbation, he has favoured me with several corrections and additions down to the present year, which must greatly contribute to enhance the value of the present edition. It has also another advantage, that of a complete Table of the most interesting particulars contained in the whole Work: such tables are usually placed at the conclusion of a book, but I thought it no impropriety to invert that position, in order to preserve an equality in the size of the volumes.



INTRODUCTORY PRINCIPLES

O F

POLITY AND GOVERNMENT.

S E C T. I.

THE earliest states fell very short of their present perfection. They who first united into large civil societies, had no other view than security against foreign and domestic violence; which, indeed, was sufficient for their original simplicity and rudeness: but the gradual invention of Arts and Sciences introducing a more refined manner of living, and at the same time more wants, they enlarged their first simple plan; and not contented with bare safety, affected conveniency, elegance, and pleasure; the combination of which constitutes what we call public welfare. Thus it was that states, in process of time, attained to that perfection which they at present enjoy, especially in our part of the world: so that a state, considered according to its present nature and constitution, consists of a large

States at first not so perfect as at present.

Definition of a state.

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society of men, united under one government, for the maintenance and advancement of their common security and welfare.

S E C T. II.

End of society.

Thus the end of a state is the security and welfare of all its members ; the prospect of this happy situation having been the principal motive for uniting into one body : a natural consequence of which is, that they must live together, and be possessed of a certain part of the earth. This is called the State's

The state's territory.

The people.

Territory ; and the body of the inhabitants are the People. The land is the property of the people, if constantly inhabited by them ; for the roving savages of the northern parts of Asia and America, cannot be said to have any certain property : as they stay only for a time, their property necessarily ceases on their removing from the country.

S E C T. III.

Sovereignty.

Administration.

The right of ordaining and transacting whatever is necessary for the safety and welfare of the state, is called the Sovereignty. The exercise of this sovereignty is the Administration ; and the person who exercises it is distinguished by the title of Sovereign. He has, consequently, a power of directing the conduct of all the other members of the state,

state, in a manner correspondent to that end of society ; or, which is the same thing, of prescribing laws to them ; and they, being obliged to pay obedience to such laws, are named *Subjects*.

Subjects.

S E C T. IV.

The form of government is the stated manner according to which the sovereignty is to be exercised. This is various ; either by one single person, or by a select number of the better sort, or, in fine, by the body of the people. A state under the first form is a Monarchy ; under the second, an Aristocracy ; under the third, a Democracy. When one of these three forms obtains alone, the government is called Simple ; and when two, or all three are united, it is denominated a Mixed Government. The question which of these three several forms is the best, has been concisely and energetically decided by an English poet :

Form of government.

Monarchy.

*Aristocracy.
Democracy.*

Simple, or

mixed government.

For forms of government let fools contest,
Whate'er is best administer'd is best. (a)

S E C T. V.

Those states in which aristocracy and democracy obtain, are generally called Free States, or Republics ; the former, very im-

Free states.

(a) Pope's Essay on Man, Epist. ii. v. 304.

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properly ; for, in an aristocracy, the nobility are just what the monarch is in a monarchy ; and as little liberty is left to the other members of the state as in the latter (*b*). The name of a free state properly belongs only to a democracy, the whole body of the people having then a share of the government, and consequently a public freedom (*c*).

S E C T. VI.

Monarchy,
the most an-
cient form
of govern-
ment.

The monarchical form is indisputably the most antient (*d*), being derived from that of the father of a family, who was in some measure sovereign of his own house : and as they had such a government daily before their eyes, it was perfectly natural that, at the first institution of states, one person should be invested with the supreme power (*e*).

Rise of free
States.

But the free states, or republics, are mostly derived from monarchies ; the abuse of which form of government stimulated the oppressed people to shake off the yoke ; and this, as sufficiently appears from the history of all ages, gave rise to most republics (*f*), both antient and modern.

(*b*) See Mr. Justi's *Nature of States*, sect. 74, 76.

(*c*) Wolf. *Instit. Juris Nat. et Gentium*, sect. 990.

(*d*) Justin. lib. 1. c. 1.

(*e*) *Science du Gouvernement* par M. de Real, Part. I. Tom. i. p. 73.

(*f*) *Ibid.* p. 75.

S E C T.

S E C T. VII.

Several states have sometimes, in support of their common safety, entered into a perpetual alliance. These are called United States *, signal instances of which we find in ancient and modern history; as in the Greek (i) and the Achaian Republics (k); in the Swiss Cantons, and the States of the United Provinces. The nature of such United States renders certain assemblies necessary for deliberating on the public concerns, and resolving on the measures suitable to critical conjunctures (l).

What is
meant by
United
States.

S E C T. VIII.

In the general consideration of a state, we meet with four essential objects. 1. The territory or country. 2. The inhabitants or people. 3. The government. 4. The end of government, or state-interest. But in the consideration of any single state, these objects have their particular contingencies, which distinguish it from every other sove-

Contingen-
cies of a
state.

* *Systema Civitatum.*

(i) *Potter's Antiquities of Greece*, Vol. I. Book I. Chap. xvi. p. 89. *Histoire des Anciens Traités*, par M. Barbeyrac, Part I. p. 1, 2.

(k) *Ubbonis Emmii vet. Græc. Tom. III. p. 274, &c.* Mart. Schokii *Resp. Achæor. et Vejent.* p. 6.

(l) *Puffendorffii Dissert. de System. Civit. §. 17 in ejus Analectis Polit. p. 312, 313.*

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reignty. These contingencies form what we call the state or condition of a country.

S E C T. IX.

Politics in
general.

European
politicks.

The knowledge of the state or condition of countries is, in a general sense, called *Politics*: but when limited to Europe and the present time, no more is understood by it than an authentic account of the present condition of the European states.

S E C T. X.

Objects to
be treated of
in it.

As the particular contingencies of a country, relatively to its territory, its people, its government, and its interest, constitute its state or condition; so are these four capital objects to be treated of, and illustrated in the description of each particular country.

S E C T. XI.

The present
state of a
country not
to be well
known
without a
knowledge
of the past.

The present state of a country arises from the past, and a true knowledge of the former requires a thorough acquaintance with the latter. This we draw from history, which informs us of the origin of states, with their great events and revolutions. These relate either to the territory of the state, as having either enlarged or curtailed it; or to the form of government; or to the reigning family. All these varieties and revolutions

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lutions have their particular consequences, and thus are objects of politics.

S E C T. XII.

The first object to be considered in a state, Wherein the territory of a state ought to be considered. is its territory; and in this, 1. Situation. 2. Extent. 3. Natural quality. And 4. Political quality.

S E C T. XIII.

The situation of a country either relates Situation, to the degree of longitude and latitude between which it is included, or more particularly to the contiguous countries, or sea, with which it is either wholly, or partly, surrounded. The situation is found in maps, and these were known to antiquity*; but

* The art of delineating countries, or even the whole earth, was known in the most antient times. Aristagoras, chief of the republic of Miletum, applying to the Lacedemonians for their assistance against Darius Hystaspis, king of Persia, brought with him to Lacedemon a brazen table, on which were engraved the whole earth, the ocean, and all the rivers; and by this representation he shewed what large and opulent countries the Lacedemonians might conquer, if they would side with the Milesians. Herodot. lib. V. c. xlv. Alcibiades, valuing himself extravagantly on his many estates, Socrates took him to a place where hung a table containing the draught of the earth; in order to let him see how insignificant his boasted estates were in comparison of the globe he lived on. Elian. Var. Hist. lib. III. cap. xxviii. Anaximander of Miletus, is supposed to be the first inventor of such a table, or map. Jo. Scheffer. ad Ælian. l. c.

in modern times have received great improvements,

S E C T. XIV.

Extent.

The extent of a country consists in its length and breadth, but these can scarce be precisely determined ; most countries being of such an irregular figure as to cause a great disparity between its dimensions in different parts. To this must likewise be added, that miles are far from being equal in all countries *. In order to come at the most exact dimensions of a state, recourse must be had to a good map, and then bring the country into one or more squares, measuring it by geographical miles ; and thus giving the whole superficial contents † in square miles. The boundaries of a state are either placed by nature itself, as mountains, rivers, and sea ; or are settled between neighbouring states by express, or tacit conventions ; the

* A just comparison of the miles in different countries is that in Busching's Geography, viz. one degree on the equator is equal to ten Swedish miles and a half ; thirteen Hungarian miles and a half ; fifteen common German, or geographical miles ; seven Silesian ; seventeen and a half Spanish ; twenty sea leagues ; twenty-five common French ; sixty common Italian ; sixty-six one and a half Turkish ; seventy English ; an hundred and four Russian miles, or wersts.

† See Busching's Introduction to the Knowledge of the Nature and Constitution of the European States. Templeman's New Survey of the Globe. Likewise, the Rev. Mr. Sufmilche's Book on the Divine Economy in the Vicissitudes of the Human Species.

former

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former are called natural, the latter political limits.

S E C T. XV.

In the natural quality of a country are to be considered its good and bad natural properties; as its air and weather; whether it be level or hilly, well-watered or dry, fruitful or sterile.

The air and temperature is very different on some parts of the earth; and the latter, sometimes, is partly owing to the climate: for the nearer the equator, the greater generally is the heat; and consequently, the farther from it, and the nearer to the poles, the more intense the cold. The situation, however, does not absolutely determine the heat and cold, it being manifest from undoubted experience, that the most eastern and western countries are much colder than those which lie between those extremities *. In mountainous places, likewise, the air is colder than in flat countries, but on that account the purest; along the sea-coast it is foul, and very variable (1).

* Russia is a proof of the severity of the cold in the more eastern countries. See Busching's Geography, Vol. I. See the like observation concerning the western countries. See also Anson's Voyage, Book II. ch. v. and Mr. Ellis's Voyage to Hudson's Bay.

(1) Busching's Introduction, sect. 18.

billy or
level;

Hills are computed by some to take up the tenth part of the continent (*m*); the highest are under the equator, and towards the south pole (*n*). Hills, in some respects, as on account of the woods with which they are covered, the waters issuing from them, and the minerals in their bowels, are of an advantage to a country; not to mention the salubrity of air.

Lofty and steep hills, however, and especially of a considerable extent, are great inconveniencies. They deprive the country of too much ground, as being fit neither for tillage nor habitation; likewise, volcanos are often found among the vast chains of mountains; and what terrible neighbours these are, the histories of all ages afford deplorable instances: for not to mention their eruptions, the adjacent countries are subject to earthquakes, by which whole cities have been destroyed and swallowed up (*o*). Thus flat countries, being secure from such dangers, have great advantages over the mountainous; and as they are fitter for agriculture, they can maintain more inhabitants.

watery or
dry;

Lands destitute of water must necessarily lie waste, as neither men nor cattle can live

(*m*) Burnet's Theory of the Earth, Vol. I. c. xi.

(*n*) Lehmanni Specimen Orographiæ generalis, (Petrog.)

(*o*) Whiston's New Theory of the Earth, Book II. Hypoth.
ii. p. 84.

in them; whereas rivers and waters not only promote fertility, but likewise, when navigable, are a great conveniency to inland trade; and for the last purpose, where there is a want of them, art assists nature with canals.

A country is fruitful when it brings forth plentifully whatever the support, the wants, and the conveniency of the inhabitants require; and when deficient in these, it may be said to be barren. Fertility includes the several productions of the animal, vegetable, and fossile kingdoms*. The former contains the quadrupeds (1), the birds (2), insects (3), and fishes (4); but of all these, such

fruitful, or
unfruitful,

* *Animalia* sunt corpora organisata et viva et sentientia, sponteque se moventia. *Vegetabilia* sunt corpora organisata et viva non sentientia. *Lapides* sunt corpora congesta nec viva nec sentientia. C. Linnæus in System. Nat. Tom. I. p. 6.

(1.) Among the tame beasts, the principal, by reason of their use, are, the horse, ass, mule, horned cattle, sheep, and goat; and among the wild, the stag, deer, and hare: the bear, wolf, and fox, though detrimental as beasts of prey, yet, like the otter and beaver, are in some measure useful on account of their skins. Some beasts, as the sable, black fox, ermine, hyena, and some kinds of squirrels, afford such fine furs, that their skins fetch a very high price. See Busching's Introduction.

(2.) Birds may in general be divided into land, water, and shore-birds; and are serviceable to mankind by their flesh, eggs, and feathers. Busching, sect. 56. The eider-duck is particularly remarkable for its incomparable down. Concerning it, see Mr. Anderson's Account of Iceland, Greenland, and Davis's Streights.

(3.) Of those, the most beneficial are the bee and silk-worm. Pennsylvania has a species of caterpillar which delights in one particular tree, and spinning silk not inferior to that of the

spe-

species only come within the verge of politics, as are of domestic or commercial use. This is likewise applicable to the productions of the vegetable kingdom, to which belong all trees (5), shrubs (6), grain, plants, and fruits (7). The fossile kingdom contains the greatest treasures of the earth; those noble metals gold (8) and silver, by which the value of all things is regulated; cop-

silkworm. *Commentar. de Reb. in Scient. Nat. & Medicina Gestis.* Vol. I. p. iii. p. 483. where this is cited from the *Philosophical Transactions*, Vol. LI. Part I. p. 54.

(4.) The largest of these is the whale, which most abounds in the North Seas, where a great number of ships of all nations are annually employed in that fishery. With regard to the several kinds of whales, see Anderson. The other species of fishes which come under observation, are, the salmon, cod, tusk, ling, herring, pilchard, and tunny; being articles of considerable trade. See Busching's Introduction. Among shell-fish, the most noted are the lobsters, crabs, oysters, and muscles; the most valuable of the last are the pearl muscles. The great Linnæus has found the secret of multiplying pearls by art. Concerning this, see Professor Schreber's Dissertation in the Mecklenburgh Gazette for the year 1763, N^o 5 and 6.

(5.) Among the trees are chiefly to be considered those which yield timber, fuel, and likewise wood for handicrafts, together with fruit-trees.

(6.) Besides the spice-trees and shrubs, are farther to be noticed in the vegetable kingdom, the vine, the sugar-cane, the cotton-tree, indigo, woad, saffron, kali. Busching, *ibid*.

(7.) Hemp, flax, grain of several kinds, tobacco. Concerning the last, which is of American origin, some curious particulars are to be found in the Chevalier d'Oliveyra's *Memoirs of Portugal*, Tom. II. p. 275.

(8.) Gold is not only eminently useful, as it can be coined and worked various ways, but as in the hands of chymists it affords many excellent medicines. Lewis Siries, a French cutler, has discovered a method for giving such a temper to gold, that any cutting instrument may be made of it. *Hamburg Literary Gazette* for 1762, N^o. 25.

per,

per, iron, tin, lead, and the semi-metals (9); likewise gems (10), and other valuable (11) or useful stones (12); besides those used by the statuaries and architects (13). To the fossile kingdom, likewise, belong clays (14), dyes, coals, salts (15.) and mineral waters.

S E C T. XVI.

Next to the natural is to be considered the political state of a country: this comprises the improvements it has received from the government. All states had not originally their present extent, having gradually acquired more lands, partly by inheritance and escheats, and partly by conquests. This aggrandizement produced the division into provinces or districts, with their cities, towns,

Political nature; in which is to be considered

the division into provinces, and these into cities, towns, and villages.

(9.) Quicksilver, antimony, cadmia, zink, bismuth, cobalt.

(10.) These are the diamond, topaz, chrysolite, hyacinth, ruby, garnet, amethyst, sapphire, opal, beryl, and emerald. See Busching's Introduction. The names, properties, and country of gems, together with instructions for using them in dress with taste and propriety, are to be found in Mr. Pouget's Treatise on Jewels, and the way of using them in Paris, 1762. Quarto.

(11.) Cornelian, agate, jasper.

(12.) Among these may be justly classed the magnet, a black and unfighly stone, which attracts iron, and has been greatly conducive to the improvement of navigation since the year 1300, when Flavio Gisia, an Italian of the country of Amalfi, discovered the use of the magnetic needle.

(13.) Porphyry, marble, alabaster.

(14.) Porcelane, fuller's earth, terra sigillata.

(15.) Of these there are three kinds, rock, spring, and sea-salt.

and

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and villages, which owe their being to the several occupations and ways of living of the inhabitants: according to the rules of good policy, cities should be appropriated to trade, manufactures, arts, and handicrafts; towns only to such shops and handicrafts as are of absolute necessity, with a little farming; and the villages intirely to agriculture, grafiery, and farming (*p*).

S E C T. XVII.

Into the
mother-
country and
dependen-
cies.

When lands are acquired, whether by arms or otherwise, instead of their being immediately incorporated with the state, such are more generally accounted dependent provinces, subject to its sovereignty, and treated accordingly. That country which is the main part of the state, and the seat of government, is termed the mother-country; while the acquisitions are called dependencies. These, consequently, are not on a footing with the mother-country, but must content themselves with the stipulations entered into at their subjection, or surrender. The distinction between the mother-country and the dependencies, shews itself most in free-states; for whereas part of the inhabitants, as

(*p*) Busching's Introduction.

in

in an aristocracy, or all, as in a democracy, have a share in the government ; the people of these dependencies are mere subjects, and totally excluded from every such privilege : such, for instance, were the Corsicans in respect to the Republic of Genoa. Dependencies, however, so far from being a constant advantage to a state, sometimes bring it into great inconveniencies ; as, when lying at a great distance, and convenient for a powerful neighbour, so that it is difficult to defend them : such was formerly the case of the Spanish Netherlands, very remote from Spain and contiguous to France.

S E C T. XVIII.

The second capital object relating to a ^{The inhabitants.} state is, the people, or inhabitants. Those have either founded the state originally, or, as foreign invaders, have mastered it by force. The latter event has chiefly been occasioned by wars and migrations. There are, indeed, few states in the universe who can boast of the former circumstance, and prove an uninterrupted settlement in their present territories ; for the more ancient a nation is, or pretends to be, the more uncertain is its origin, and that of the states founded by it, and the deeper it lies involved in fable and obscurity.

It

It is the same with the names of people and states, which have undergone different mutations at distances of time. Most countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa, which were subject to the Roman empire, on its overthrow came to be called by new names. The names of some modern states are derived from foreigners who conquered them. Thus, for instance, France received its denomination from the Franks; England from the Angles; Scotland, from the Scots; Hungary from the Huns. Some people, on the other hand, are called by the antient and modern name of their countries; as the present Spaniards from Spain, the Portuguese from Portugal. Sometimes the capital has given its name to the state, as Naples to the kingdom so called; and the Russian empire, for a very long time, bore the name of Muscovy from its chief city.

S E C T. XIX.

What to be
considered
in them.

On the people depend the strength and power of a state, and no less its weakness and impotency; therefore the qualities both of their bodies and minds, their virtues and vices, number, language, different degrees, and parties, are to be considered.

S E C T.

S E C T. XX.

To the bodily qualities belong largeness and beauty, and the opposite defects. Influence of the climate on the body.

There is in general a very great difference in the bodies and faces of men, according to the nature of the country. This is not purely owing to the heat or cold of the several climates, but to the grains, vegetables, and other aliments, which they produce, and are used by the inhabitants for food. A certain writer has remarked, that the human species towards the north-pole, are brown; from thence to the sixtieth degree, red; from thence to the forty-fifth, fair; from thence to the thirtieth, yellow; afterwards greenish, then swarthy, and lastly, under the tropics, black (*q*): that the northern people are large, fair-complexioned, with lank red hair, blue eyes, sanguine, and their blood thick; the southern, of a middling stature, brown complexion, black and curled hair, black eyes, their blood thin, and in no great quantity (*r*). Another learned person di-

(*q*) Spirit of Nations, lib. I. c. vi. p. 34. Linnæus in Syft. Nat. p. 3. makes the following distinction of the complexions of men according to the four parts of the world: the European, white; the American, reddish; the Asiatic, tawny; the African, black.

(*r*) Spirit of Nations, p. 36.

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vides the whole human race into three nations, alike in stature, shape, and features. The first are known by a hideous countenance, swarthy skin, large jaw-bones, small flat nose, small hollow eyes, little or no beard, black hair, and jolt heads. Among these he classes the Calmucs, Mungals, Ostiaks, and other people of Siberia; the Samojedes, Greenlanders, Chinese, Japanese, Americans, Indians, and Africans. The second nation have handsome faces; and this class he makes to consist of Jews, Turks, Persians, Armenians, and Georgians. The third nation are the Europeans and Tartars; and these he accounts the founders of the north-west people of Europe (*s*). But the difference of the bodies and faces of people in different countries is scarcely greater than that of their ideas of beauty. Thus the Moors place it in the blackness of their faces; the Chinese and Calmucs in a flat visage; nay, the Omaguas, a people of South-America, press the foreheads of their new-born children between two boards, in order more effectually to give them that odd figure (*t*).

(*s*) P. V. Havens nye og forbedrede Esterratninger om der Russiske Rige, 11 Deel, cap. v. p. 101, &c.

(*t*) Condamine's Travels into the inward parts of South-America, Vol. II.

The different situation and quality of coun-^{Health.}tries have an influence on the health of the inhabitants. Accordingly, different nations have their peculiar distempers; such as the leprosy and pestilence, in the eastern and southern countries. The venereal distemper is said to have been first known in the islands of the New World, when discovered by Columbus, and to have been brought into Europe by the Spaniards (*u*): of this, however, some make a question (*w*).

S E C T. XXI.

As the climate has an influence on the^{Mental qua-}body, it cannot be denied to affect the^{lities.} mind; whose dispositions depend not a little on the nature of the body. The effect of the different climates herein is manifest from the corresponding nature both of the country and inhabitants (*x*). Experience shews a temperate climate to be the best adapted to the human understanding; and in antient and modern ages,

(*u*) Guicciardini's History of Italy, lib. II.

(*w*) Schreiber in Observationibus de pestilentia quæ annis 1737, 1738, in Ucraina grassata est. Petropoli 1750. Sanchez, in the Journal de Medec. Tom. XI. p. 372.

(*x*) Florus, lib. III. c. iv. sect. 2. says of the Allobrogians, or Savoyards, "Atrox cælum, perinde ingenia;" and cap. iv. sect. 4. of the Thracians, "Sylvarum et montium situs cum ingenio consentiebant." The like is applicable to the savages of North America.

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such has been the seat of arts and sciences : whereas the very hot or very cold countries never produced many great geniuses, or great scholars. The like difference between men living in different climates, appears in certain virtues and vices. The northern people, their bodies being steeled by the sharpness of the weather, are less inclined to a soft way of life, and sensual gratifications, than the southern, with whom voluptuousness is the predominant vice (y). They likewise can bear labour and hardships: thence their fitness for war, and their intrepidity in danger, which the luxurious people of the south and east dare not face.

*Omnis in Arctoïis populus quicunque pruinis
Nascitur, indomitu bellis et Martis amator.
Quidquid ad Eoos tractus mundique teporem
Labitur, emollit gentes clementia cœli (z).*

In cold laborious climes, the wintry north
Brings her undaunted hardy warriors forth ;
In body and in mind untaught to yield,
Stubborn of each, and steady in the field ;
While Asia's softer climate form'd to please,
Dissolves her sons in indolence and ease.

This truth, which was known even to remote antiquity, is perfectly confirmed by history ; the northern nations having generally vanquished the southern ; and the

(y) See Spirit of Nations, book I. ch. vii.

(z) Lucan. lib. viii. 333.

greatest and most remarkable conquests having been carried on from the north southwards (*a*). The northern people have always been fond of liberty, and established it in all their colonies; whereas the southern have submitted to despotic governments, being little better than slaves to their princes (*b*). The north has always been famous for fidelity and probity; whereas the south lies under the imputation of treachery, craft, and deceit (*c*).

S E C T. XXII.

The effect of the climate is also observed in the languages*, the number of which is infinite†; and that occasions another diversity among people. At first there was no such variety of languages, but many are derived from the intermixture of nations, occasioned by migrations and conquests‡.

(*a*) Spirit of Laws, l. XVII. c. iv. Spirit of Nations, l. I. c. vii. p. 45.

(*b*) Ibid. c. ii. & iv.

(*c*) Concerning the difference of men in different climates, see a Dissertation written in German, On the Climate, and its Influence on the Human Mind.

* At least in the pronunciation. Spirit of Nations, B. I. c. xlvii. &c.

† This is particularly seen among the multitudes of small tribes of savages in America; all speaking different dialects. The Spaniards once took twenty Indians prisoners, seven of whom were found to speak quite different languages. Vita e lettere di Americo Vesputci.

‡ The Jews boast that God, at the building of the tower of Babel, altered the universal language, but left it to

INTRODUCTORY PRINCIPLES

Languages may be divided into original or dialects: the former have no affinity with any other; the latter in some measure correspond with one or more. From the multiplicity of languages are derived the many differences in writing and letters: of these the Chinese characters are the most numerous, the most difficult, and the strangest*.

Language deserves a place in a political consideration, no farther than as well framed and improved to a certain degree of ornament and perfection: for some nations affect a preference of language for euphony, copiousness, and force; as antiently the Greeks and Romans, and at present the French. A language chiefly recommends itself to foreign nations, by the useful and entertaining books which it has produced. On this account it is that we learn several living and dead languages.

S E C T. XXIII.

Number of
inhabitants.

The strength of a state is estimated by the number of its inhabitants: the

be used by them as his own peculiar people; and that therefore the Hebrew is the most antient tongue. Univ. Hist. Vol. I. p. 356.

* The Chinese, instead of an alphabet, have as many characters as words, to the amount of eighty thousand; consequently scarce possible to be learned. Da Halde's China, Vol. II.

greater

greater the increase of people, and the more they excel in bodily and mental qualities, in ingenuity and wealth, the greater the power of the state. It is not extent of territory alone that makes a state powerful, it must be suitably inhabited; and a government should by all means promote population. There are few states in the world which could not admit of more inhabitants than they actually possess (*e*). The whole earth, according to some computations, would contain fourteen thousand millions; whereas the aggregate number of its inhabitants does not exceed a thousand or eleven hundred millions; and the people in many countries are still in a less proportion to the number which could subsist there (*f*). The chief impediments to population are famine, war, and pestilence, or epidemical contagions; otherwise the inhabitants of some countries would, in a certain number of years, be doubled (*g*). But from the preceding, and other causes, connected with the internal arrangement of a state, this cannot come to pass; so that the whole body of human species, considered in general, and one country compared with ano-

(*e*) See M. Süssmilch. Vol. II. c. xx. sect. 378, and 395.

(*f*) Ibid. sect. 375, 405.

(*g*) Ibid. Vol. I. c. viii. sect. 152, 153.

ther, continues without any considerable alteration of number. It is, indeed, manifest, that single districts and towns sometimes increase very fast from particular causes; but this increase, instead of continuing in the like extraordinary proportion, has a certain term, where it ceases. Instances of this are, Paris, London, and Amsterdam, where the inhabitants have, for a long time, known no considerable increase (*b*).

S E C T. XXIV.

Different
degrees.

The citizens of a state are not all on a level; the laws, or customs, giving to some persons or families a dignity, accompanied with privileges; and such pre-eminence

(*b*) Sir William Petty has, from a comparison of the burials in a course of years, shewn, that since the year 1565, the inhabitants of London have been doubled every forty years; and accounts, that such duplication will continue till about the year 1800, and then cease. The number of the inhabitants in the said year 1565, he states at 77040; and in the year 1682, when the duplication must have come about near three times, he makes them 669930. From the year 1682 to 1722, he computes another duplication; and from the latter to the year 1762, still another. Thus the number of inhabitants of London must, in the year 1722, have amounted to 1,339,860; and in 1762, to 2,679,920. Sir William Petty's Essays on Political Arithmetic, p. 7—17. But experience has already confuted this calculation; for London, since the year 1730, when it might have had something above the number Petty gives it in the year 1682, has rather decreased in inhabitants. See Susmilch, Vol. II. c. xxv. Thus London, in all appearance, will never attain to the grandeur and populousness which Sir William assigns to it in the year 1802, viz. 5,339,440 souls.

consti-

constitutes Nobility. This dignity either ceases with the life of the person, or descends to his heirs: the first is called *personal*, the other *hereditary nobility*, which obtains in all the Christian parts of Europe; whereas in China (*i*) and Turkey (*k*), and other despotic governments, only personal nobility takes place.

As the nobility are distinguished from the other inhabitants of the state by their privileges; there is, likewise, a difference between the latter, owing to their office and manner of living, or occupation, either in the towns or in the country: hence arise several degrees among the inhabitants; and these constitute different states or conditions in the political body.

S E C T. XXV.

In large and popular states, it is no un-^{Parties in a state.}common case for some men to entertain relatively to certain objects different thoughts and dispositions from their fellow-citizens. An open declaration of these their thoughts and dispositions, and as open an opposition to them, especially if carried to violence, are productive of parties; and these affect

(i) Du Halde, Vol. II.

(k) Busbequ. Epist. I. p. 40, 100. Beeman. in Hist. Orb. Terr. Geogr. et Civ. P. II. c. x. sect. 16.

their

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their reciprocal intercourse. This division is either in matters of belief or in politics ; and thus the parties are called either Religious or Political. Such parties are particularly owing to the internal defects and distempers of republics, and states of a mixed government ; and are of such dangerous consequence, that it greatly concerns the supreme powers to apply efficacious remedies against this evil before it grows to a head ; as, besides its other various inconveniences, it may break out into tumults and civil wars.

S E C T. XXVI.

Government; what
to be considered in it.

The exercise of the supreme power makes the third capital object in the consideration of a state. In this are included, 1. The constitution, or system of laws ; and 2. The departments of the several offices of the administration.

S E C T. XXVII.

The form of government in a state is known by its fundamental laws, to which the administering power is obliged to conform. These fundamentals are very different in all states, several of them depending on the original establishments made by the

the people, or introduced by subsequent revolutions.

In some states they are many, in others few ; in some they are committed to writing, and in others only traditional. The contents of the fundamental laws are called the Constitution, or Legal System. Now amidst such a difference in the fundamental laws of states, the constitution must also differ ; and in proportion to the greater number of fundamental laws, its legal system must be more widely extended.

S E C T. XXVIII.

When the sovereign of a monarchy is, in certain cases specified by the fundamental laws, bound to exercise the supreme power according to the opinion of the nobility, or the body of the people, such a monarchy is said to be *limited*. This makes the mixed form of government, in the first case, *monarchical* and *aristocratical*; and in the latter, *monarchical*, *aristocratical*, and *democratical*. The view of such a mixed arrangement is, that the regal prerogative being limited, the liberty of the subject may in some measure be maintained : but this is scarce reconcileable with the first of these governments ; for it has all the inconveniencies of aristocracy ; and the people being

A limited
monarchy.

being excluded from all share in the government, instead of enjoying any freedom are generally oppressed. In the second, however, where the power of the prince, of the nobility, and the people, is tempered by a proper distribution, freedom extends itself to every individual of the state; and this form of government has manifest advantages over the other two. When the power however of the three governing states is not justly distributed, so as to form an equipoise, but one of the three preponderates, intestine disturbances and civil wars, and even a total subversion and change of the former government may be apprehended. This is what befel England under Charles I. The democracy having gained the upper-hand, the House of Commons raised itself on the ruin of monarchy and aristocracy. The consequence was a bloody intestine war, and the subversion of the form of government, which afterwards, from being first an anarchy, became a democracy; and lastly, was modelled almost into an unlimited monarchy. The like baneful consequences will certainly shew themselves in such a mixed form of government, when the aristocracy, instead of being duly balanced, infringes on the monarchical and demo-

democratical power, even so as to abolish them.

S E C T. XXIX.

Persons, or assemblies, to whose opinion ^{States, or diets.} the monarch is to refer in the exercise of the sovereignty, are called States of the kingdom. These in an aristocratical monarchy are only the Great, or the Nobility. Such was the original constitution of all the monarchies founded by the German and Northern nations, and still subsisting in Poland (*m*); whereas in monarchies mixed with aristocracy and democracy, besides the nobility, the People form one of the states. At particular conjunctures, when, by the constitution, the king cannot decide of himself, the States of the kingdom are to be assembled; and such assembly is called the *diet*. The resolutions of their assemblies are generally regulated by a majority of votes, a perfect unanimity being scarce possible among such numbers: accordingly, where such unanimity is required, it is very seldom that an affair is carried into execution. The power of kings and states, with regard to affairs brought before the diets, and the resolutions taken concerning them,

(*m*) Justi's Nature and Essence of States, §. 75.

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are to be regulated by the constitutional laws. In some states, the prince may refuse his assent to resolutions which the other two States have agreed to ; and there are states where he is absolutely obliged to acquiesce in such resolutions.

S E C T. XXX.

An unlimited monarchy.

If the government of the state is lodged intirely in the monarch's pleasure, this constitutes an unlimited monarchy. Here the prince exercises the sovereignty in an arbitrary manner, according to his own sentiments, and uncontrouled by any of those limitations, with which the prerogative is tempered in mixed monarchies ; *Regis in unius concedunt omnia legem.* An unlimited monarch, however, is not to be looked on as raised above all human laws, and so as to have a power of making his own pleasure the rule of government ; for even an unlimited monarchy is not without certain tacit fundamental laws, which it behoves the prince to observe (*n*).

S E C T. XXXI.

A despotic state.

If the sovereign, besides his unlimited prerogative, be invested with the power of

(*m*) Ibid. p. 67.

a lord

a lord over his slaves, such a state is called a despotic government; and the sovereign a despot. Now as a lord makes the most he can of his slaves, so in a despotic government, both the persons and substance of the subjects are devoted to the avidity and passions of the despots; consequently their welfare, in his eye, is a meer collateral concern (*o*). But as such servitude is diametrically contrary to the end of society, a despotic sovereignty is, with very good reason, not classed among the particular forms of government, but considered as a corruption and abuse of monarchy (*p*). The despot, however, being not only regent, but likewise lord of his subjects, the government is absolutely subordinate to his will. Yet there are, even in despotic kingdoms, some ancient fundamentals, which the sovereign himself is not to violate; such as the established religion, and the succession to the throne. Were the Grand Signor himself, with all his unbounded sway, to attempt any alteration in either of those two articles, it would, very probably, cost him both his throne and his life.

(*o*) Wolfe's Institut. Jur. Nat. et Gent. §. 997.

(*p*) See M. Justi's Nature and Constitution of States, sect. 65. The Greeks looked on despotism as a medium between monarchy and tyranny. Vid. Jo. Nic. Hertii Elem. Prudentiæ Civilis, P. I. sect. ii. §. 5.

S E C T. XXXII.

The system
of laws in a
limited
monarchy,
is of a wide
extent ; in
the unlimited,
short ;
and in des-
potic states,
the shortest
of all.

Where the fundamental laws are many, the system of laws is extensive ; and where few, it is concise. Now a limited monarchy having most fundamental laws, the legal system must of course be multifarious. The unlimited monarchies having but few, and despotic still fewer, the system of laws in the former is but short, and in the latter still more compendious ; therefore it may well be said, that the will of an unlimited monarch, and much more of a despot, constitutes the substance of the legal system.

S E C T. XXXIII.

A kingdom,
or monar-
chy defined.

A monarchy, whether limited or unlimited, is called an empire, or kingdom ; and the sovereigns of them emperors, or kings.

S E C T. XXXIV.

Hereditary
and elective
kingdoms.

The sovereignty may be conferred on the sovereign, either for his own person, or at the same time for his heirs. In the first case, the kingdom is called *elective* ; in the second, *hereditary*. If in the latter the hereditary succession be limited to the male line alone, this is termed a *male succession* ; but

but where females likewise are admitted to the succession, this is called a *mixed succession* (q).

S E C T. XXXV.

Some nations prefer election to hereditary succession, as better calculated for securing their rights and privileges, and keeping the monarchical prerogative within salutary limits. For this purpose, they lay before the new-elected sovereign certain conditions, which in his future government he must promise, upon oath, most punctually to observe. These conditions thus proposed, and by the prince solemnly agreed to, is called the election-compact. This is sometimes accompanied with a declaration, that if the elected prince acts contrary to them, he thereby forfeits his dignity; or that whatever he does contrary to that compact, shall be of no force. Such declaration in the first case is termed *lex commissoria*; in the second, *lex cassatoria* (r). The election-compacts are the primary and chief fundamental laws of a state; as those of ancient date are sometimes explained or al-

Election-compact.

(q) See Kahrel's Law of Nature, Part IV. chap. viii. sect. 14.

(r) Everard Otto in notit. rerump. proleg. sect. L. (3).

INTRODUCTORY PRINCIPLES

tered by others more recent. But the people, even in hereditary states, having a right, on the extinction of the reigning family, to elect a new sovereign; may, likewise, lay down to him certain conditions as a rule of government, and by the two laws abovementioned, bind him and his descendants to the punctual observance of the compact.

S E C T. XXXVI.

An hereditary kingdom may become an elective, and vice versa.

The supreme power in hereditary states reverting to the people, on the failure of the reigning family, they may alter the form of government as they think fit, and turn an hereditary into an elective state; as, on the other hand, the states of an elective kingdom are at liberty to make the throne hereditary.

S E C T. XXXVII.

Cessation of the government.

The government, or regency, ceases by the death, resignation, or deposition of the sovereign.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Guardians requisite in an elective kingdom;

The throne in elective kingdoms becoming vacant by the demise of the sovereign, guardians of the kingdom are to be appointed for conducting the government till the election of

of a new sovereign, unless he has been chosen whilst his predecessor was still living; for, in such a case, he immediately takes possession of the throne (s).

S E C T. XXXIX.

In hereditary kingdoms, the throne, instead of being vacant by the demise of the sovereign, immediately devolves to the lawful successor: but in case of his being a minor, tutors or guardians are appointed for his person, and a regency for managing the affairs of the kingdom. The latter must likewise be instituted when the monarch, by reason of other impediments, cannot take the reins of government into his hands.

S E C T. XL.

That a sovereign may resign the supreme power, unless the fundamental laws, or election-compact, have enacted otherwise, is unquestionable; but whether he can be deposed, is a more difficult and important question. The case mostly occurs in limited kingdoms, and especially if he has subjected

A sovereign may resign the sovereignty.

(s) Of this Germany affords many instances, which have given rise to the proverbial saying, "When the emperor dies, the king seats himself in the saddle." See M. Eissenhart's Maxims of the German Law in Adages, p. 559.

himself to the law of forfeiture (*t*). In elective kingdoms, the consequence of such deposition is the choice of a new sovereign ; in hereditary kingdoms, the investiture of the next heir : but when the deposition is attended with a total change of the form of government, the royal family is likewise excluded from the succession.

S E C T. XLI.

Title and
arms.

States have their particular arms and titles, which are borne by the sovereign. The title consists in the enumeration of the dignities belonging to him, on account of the kingdom and its dependencies. Titles differ not a little, according to the different usages of nations ; but those assumed by the Eastern and other barbarian monarchs, are the most singular and extravagant (*u*). The arms of a state are emblems of the dignity and the possession of its territories, or of its right to them ; for sometimes the state bears both the title and arms of countries which it is not in possession of. This

(*t*) Huber de Jure Civit. Lib. I. Sect. ix. cap. vi. §. 17, 25.

(*u*) Ammian Marcellinus, lib. XVII. p. 103, mentions a letter from Sapor, king of Persia, to the emperor Constantius, with this preamble ; " Sapor, king of kings, prince of the stars, brother to the sun and moon, &c." The causes of this turgid title are specified by that writer, lib. XXIII. More instances of strange titles assumed by the Asiatic and African kings, may be found in Bezman's Synt. Dignit. Illustr. Dissert. III.

is partly to keep up a claim to them, and partly in memorial of former possession.

S E C T. XLII.

On the accession of a sovereign, there are certain ceremonies performed both in elective and hereditary kingdoms; they are proclaimed, crowned, and receive homage.

Solemnities on a sovereign's accession.

The coronation is a solemn act in which, the sovereign being anointed, the crown put on his head, and the regalia delivered to him, he is publicly inaugurated. Not that this formality is of absolute necessity: for in certain circumstances it may be omitted (*w*). Homage chiefly consists in the subjects taking an oath of fidelity and allegiance to their sovereign.

Coronation.

Homage.

S E C T. XLIII.

The sovereign's residence is generally in the capital city: his palaces, and other remarkable particulars of the metropolis, are not to be passed over unnoticed. The numerous retinue of domestics and servants of various degrees form his household, and impart a splendor and air of grandeur to the court.

Sovereign's residence.

(*w*) Nettelblatt Dissert. de Coronatione ejusque effectu inter gentes, cap. III.

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S E C T. XLIV.

Sovereigns
remarkable
above
others.

The sovereign being the principal person in the state, the welfare of which greatly depends on him, particular notice is to be taken of princes, who, by their virtues or vices, their good or bad government, have promoted the welfare and aggrandizement of the state, or injured its prosperity: it is especially proper to get a knowledge of the reigning prince's character.

S E C T. XLV.

Observation
on the
names of
Sovereigns.

The christian names of sovereigns seem quite a matter of indifference; yet have some names been remarked as fortunate in some kingdoms, and unfortunate in others. Ferdinand was formerly accounted a very auspicious name among the Spaniards; and that of Lewis is still beloved and honoured among the French; whereas the name of Henry they look on as ominous; and the Scots have no better opinion of that of James.

*Il ne faut plus nommer Henrys les Rois de France,
La mort par deux couteaux et un éclat de lance
A tués trois Henrys: l'un joutant à cheval,
L'autre en son cabinet, le tiers en son carosse.
Cinq Rois du nom de Jaques ont fait croire à l'Ecosse,
Qu'il y a dans le nom quelque secret fatal (y).*

(y) Bierlingii Dissert. de eo quod divinum est in historia civili, c. II.

S E C T.

S E C T. XLVI.

The like observation has been made on ^{Their families.} some royal families. That of Capet in France, and that of Oldenburg in Denmark, have been very fortunate; whereas the Merovingians and Carolingians in France, and the Stuarts in Scotland and England, make a dismal figure in the histories of those countries.

S E C T. XLVII.

Next to the system of laws come the ^{Depart-} departments of the several officers of the ^{ment of} administration. Of these are to be considered, ^{the several} ^{state officers.}

1. Those which relate to the internal constitution of the state ; and
2. Those which regard foreign affairs.

S E C T. XLVIII.

To the former belong, ^{Affairs relating to the internal constitution of the state.}

1. The state of religion and the churches, together with universities, colleges and schools ; likewise, arts and sciences.
2. The laws and courts of justice.
3. The military establishment.
4. The revenue and commerce.

S E C T. XLIX.

Religion.

Religion consists in the articles of belief and mode of doctrine appointed for the worship of God. This appointment being various, there are various religions; and these, according to the different ideas entertained of the Supreme Being, are principally four; the *Christian*, the *Jewish*, the *Mahometan*, and *Pagan*; all which are subdivided into many sects. The two last prevail over the greater part of the earth. Mahometanism comprehends Turkey, Persia, the Mogul country, several of the Tartar nations, and all the northern part of Africa. Paganism reigns in China, Japan, Siam, and many other Asiatic countries and islands: likewise, in a large part of Africa, and a multitude of nations in America. Christianity is chiefly seated in Europe, from whence it has been propagated into the three other parts of the world by European colonies. Judaism consists of communities dispersed in all the quarters of the earth, and especially in trading places.

Difference
between the
established
and tolerat-
ed religions.

A religion introduced and confirmed by a law of the state, so that they who profess it enjoy all the privileges and advantages appertaining to citizens, is termed the *established*, or *predominant religion*.

Sub-

Subordinate to this are the *tolerated* religions, the free exercise of which is matter of favour, and with limitations of privileges to the professors of such sects. According to this division, religion comes within a political consideration only so far as it has an influence on government, and the welfare of the state. It is an observation of baron Montesquieu (y), that Christianity is highly advantageous, and productive of the greatest benefits to a state; for as its doctrines chiefly turn on purity and gentleness of manners, with the strongest exhortations to forbearance and brotherly love, it perfectly corresponds with a limited government; and as far remote is it from despotism, which seems, indeed, peculiar to Mahometanism. To the Christian religion mankind is indebted for a certain political system in the government, and for a certain law of nations in war, by which the fury of the conqueror is restrained, and the conquered are protected from extirpation and extreme oppression. But unhappily the same celebrated writer brings in a charge against the Christian religion, that by prohibiting divorces, and by the celibacy of the clergy, and the cloisteral life, it injures popula-

(y) Spirit of Laws, book XXIV. c. iii.

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tion (z). The first accusation rests on the groundless opinion, that were divorces allowed of at will, the number of births would be greatly increased; the second does not affect the Christian religion universally, but only the Romish, and partly the Greek church (a).

S E C T. L.

The church is subject to the state.

A number of persons professing a religion, and meeting for the exercise of it, form a society which is called the Church. This being within the state, must necessarily acknowledge its supremacy and laws; and thus, together with all its members, is dependent on the state. The sovereign has a right to keep such an eye over it, that it may not form, or take in hand, any thing contrary to the end of government; but in all things act with temper, and agreeably to the laws of the state: this is the foundation of the State's *spiritual power* *.

Spiritual power.

If a congregation, or church, withdraws itself from the supremacy of the civil government, and sets up an independency, it is said to make a *state in a state*.

(z) Persian Letters, 110, 111, 112.

(a) These erroneous positions are unanswerably confuted by the Rev. Mr. Susmilche, in his Display of the Divine Oeconomy, Vol. II, cap. 18.

* Jus circa sacra.

As

As this of course must be extremely detrimental to the public, the government has a right to prevent it. But as, on one side, it is impowered to keep the church in a dependency on the state; so, on the other hand, it is not to interfere in the ecclesiastical economy, or impose ceremonies, or articles of belief, as this would be assuming a dominion over conscience, a prerogative to which no mortal is intitled.

S E C T. LI.

The sciences have a near affinity with religion; for the former, by enlightening the understanding, promote a convictive acknowledgment of the truths of the latter, the happy consequence of which is a rectitude of the will: religion, on the other hand, presents motives for applying the sciences to a salutary use, and such as answers the end of government. Religion makes good citizens; the sciences render them capable, ingenious, and useful; bringing not only gain and wealth to a state, but consideration and honour to the whole people. The sciences are divided into the high and the liberal. In the former are included divinity, law, physic, and mathematics; the latter are, history, philology, oratory, poetry, and music.

Advantages
of the sci-
ences.

High and
liberal sci-
ences.

music. These all have their advantages ; so that it is the concern of a wise government not to let them want encouragement.

S E C T. LII.

Universi-
ties, and in-
ferior sem-
inaries.

The advancement of sciences requires schools of higher and lower ranks. In the former, called Universities, are taught all the sciences, both the liberal and the higher ; * in the latter, youth are only instructed in the liberal sciences, or go no farther than writing, casting accompts, Latin and Greek, and the rudiments of religion. Besides the universities and lower schools, there are some of an intermediate class, known by the name of Academies ; where young gentlemen learn the exercises, languages, sciences, and arts becoming their station.

Though music be reckoned among the fine arts, yet it is very seldom taught by appointed professors : this, however, obtained antiently, and even in some measure still subsists. Alphonso X. king of Castile, in the year 1254, founded in the university of Salamanca a professorship of music, with a salary of fifty maravedis a year. See Ferrera's History of Spain, book IV. §. 461. p. 477. Music has likewise a professorship at Coimbra. Noticias de Portugal por Manoel Saverin de Faria, Discurso V. §. iii. p. 207.

There is likewise a professor of Music at Oxford ; and at the English universities, even Doctors of Music are created. See Alberti's Letters on the State of Religion and Learning in Great Britain, Letter XLVIII. and L.

S E C T. LIH.

The difference betwixt sciences and arts is, that the former consists in a readiness to perceive and illustrate certain truths; the latter, in a facility of performing any thing according to certain rules. The one employs only the intellect: the other, though not exclusively of the mind, depends chiefly on manual skill. The rules in some arts are very simple, so as to be learned by mere practice; in others they are more complex, and deduced from the liberal, or even from some parts of the higher sciences. The former are called common, or mechanical arts, and include all kinds of handicrafts; the latter are stiled the fine arts, of which the principal are painting, sculpture, engraving, and architecture.

Difference
betwixt Sci-
ences and
Arts.

Betwixt the
mechanical
and fine
arts.

S E C T. LIV.

The improvement and increase of sciences are owing to nothing more than to Academies and Scientific Societies. The discovery of new truths being their professed study, the members of them should be persons of eminent talents. Academies and societies are usually divided into three classes, the mathematical, the physio-logical,

Advantage
of Aca-
demies and
Scientific
Societies.

Academies
of the Fine
Arts.

Royal
Schools.

logical, and the philological; each with their particular director, and a president over all. In imitation of the Scientifical Academies and Societies, have likewise been instituted Academies of the Fine Arts, as painting, sculpture, and architecture, which by these institutions have been brought to perfection. With the same view of promoting the arts in general, great applause is due to the Royal Schools as they are called; where youth, besides what is taught in common seminaries, are instructed in the fundamentals of the fine and mechanical arts.

S E C T. LV.

Printing.

In the progress of the sciences and of literature, Printing has been a main instrument; manuscripts, or written books, having been formerly so dear, that none but the rich could purchase them (a). This scarcity has been removed by the inestimable invention of the typographical art, which the Dutch ascribe to their countryman Laurence Cos-

(a) It is related of the famous Anthony Beccatelli, commonly called Panormita, that he sold a parcel of land to purchase a copy of Livy. In the eleventh century, Gracia, countess of Anjou, gave for a collection of homilies, 200 sheep, a measure of wheat, a like quantity of rye, and a like quantity of millet, together with a number of marten skins. He-nault *Abregé Chronologique, or Abridgement of the History of France*, Tom. I. p. 154.

ter,

ter, of Haarlem (*b*) ; but it is now sufficiently proved, that John Guttenberg, of Strasburg, found out the real printing of books ; that is, the art of printing with single moveable types *.

From printing sprung Bookselling, which ^{Bookselling.} is of such vast benefit to the republic of letters ; the writings of the learned being now easily conveyed from one country to another.

S E C T. LVI.

The advancement of the sciences shews ^{Laws.} the great care of government for the honour and benefit of the state ; as good laws are a proof of its wisdom. Laws are rules prescribed by the supreme powers for the behaviour of the subject. A celebrated civilian observes, that nothing is more difficult than to make laws ; for to invent and properly express rules in an infinite number of procedures, in an infinite number of cases,

(*b*) See General History of the United Netherlands, Vol. II. p. 112, 113.

* John Guttenberg was born at Mentz, of a noble family, and lived at Strasburg from 1430 to 1445. He afterwards went into partnership with Faustus of Mentz ; but a dispute between them producing a law-suit, he was cast, and thereby lost his printing-house. Faustus then entered into connections with Peter Schoiffer, who, between 1450 and 1455, invented the cast types. All this has been sufficiently proved by counsellor Schoplin, in his *Vindiciæ Typographicæ*. Argentor. 1760. 4. See Leipzig Gazette, N° 18. 1760.

is

is certainly of all things nearest to the Divine wisdom and foresight (*d*). The more the actions of men are directed towards the end of government, that is, towards the general safety and welfare, the better and more complete are its laws. A perfect code of laws, says a great legislator, would be the masterpiece of the human understanding (*e*): but, adds he, perfection is beyond the reach of human nature. There are innumerable kinds of laws; but here it is sufficient to observe, that they, in general, relate to cases occurring in civil life, or to the public and private safety; forbidding, under proportionate penalties, the doing any injury to another in his property, character, and person: the former are termed *civil*, the other *penal*.

S E C T. LVII.

Courts of
justice.

The guardians of the laws are the judges, or persons nominated by the government for deciding processes according to the laws of the land, and for punishing malefactors. When several are appointed as one society for this end, it is called a *court of justice*. These courts, before which a cause is brought, are

(*d*) Huber de Jure Civit. lib. II. Sect. I. cap. i. §. 21.

(*e*) Dissertation on the Reasons for confirming or abrogating the Laws. By the author of the Memoirs of Brandenburg.

filed *lower courts*; and those to which a ^{Lower Courts.} cause is carried by a second or a third appeal, are distinguished by the appellation of *higher jurisdictions*. The capital virtue of higher jurisdictions, judges and courts, is impartiality and dispatch.

S E C T. LVIII.

The laws and courts of justice, however, ^{Military establishments.} are not always capable of preserving the tranquillity of a state, but lose their strength amidst the violence and tumult of popular commotions. Now, in order to quell these, and likewise for the security of the state against the attacks of foreign enemies, a competent body of armed men, from thence called an army, must always be kept on foot. ^{Army.} This is the less to be avoided, war being a common, if not a necessary evil in the world; neither religion, nor enlightened reason, nor the gradual introduction of refinements in life, having been able to eradicate this scourge. Hence a large military force seems necessary to a state for its own defence; but at the same time is a heavy load; as, besides draining a country of the flower of its men, it brings on enormous charges for the several branches of listing, cloathing, and maintaining a

large body of horse and foot (*f*); for the support of fortifications, magazines, arms, artillery, and an infinite number of other military implements.

S E C T. LIX.

Marine.

To what
states neces-
sary.

Maritime countries, or islands, being liable to be attacked by sea, farther require a considerable naval force; which is, likewise, indispensibly necessary to a state possessed of dependencies and colonies in the other remote parts of the world, or engaged in an extensive trade to foreign parts; for it is by a naval force both the one and the other must be protected. This is the grand use of a marine. But to a state not so circumstanced, which has neither distant territories nor colonies, nor any considerable foreign trade, a marine is a mere show and parade. For a foreign trade and naval force are intimately connected; so that the latter cannot subsist without the former; it being a nursery for multitudes of seamen, who, upon an emergency, may be removed on board the men of war; an advantage which an uncommercial state cannot possess. Thus the naval power of states which are masters of a considerable foreign

(*f*) Busching's Introduction, §. III.

trade,

trade, is natural; whereas that of others is only forced, and sometimes may be baffled, or ruined, by one unfortunate accident.

A marine is infinitely more expensive than a land force; the building and equipment of men of war requiring stupendous quantities of timber, tar, pitch, cordage, iron-work, guns, and other stores and tackling*.

Expence of
a marine.

Ships of war are divided according to the largeness of their cannon, and the number of their men; and thus are called a first, second, or third rate ship. Those from the

Difference
of ships of
war.

* In England, about forty years ago, a ship of 100 guns } cost per Sterling.

	£.
100 —	35553
90 —	29886
80 —	23638
70 —	17785
60 —	14197
50 —	10606
40 —	7858
30 —	5846
20 —	3710

Burchet's Compleat History of the most remarkable Transactions at Sea, in the Preface. From this, Lediard, in the Introduction to his Naval History of Great Britain, p. 12, computes the charge of the whole navy of Great Britain, in the year 1734, when it consisted of two hundred and nine ships, great and small, and makes it amount to 2,591,337 l. exclusive of rigging, ammunition, provisions, and men. See Lives of the British Admirals, Vol. 1. Introduction, p. 14, 15.

The fitting out a sixty-gun ship in Spain for six months, costs, including the pay of the officers, 84,000 Escudos de Vellon, about 56,000 dollars. See Theory and Practice of Trade and the Marine, by Don Geronimo de Ustariz, chap. lxxi. p. 266.

first to the fourth *, are stiled Ships of the Line, from their being placed in the line ; ships being generally drawn up in a line, when they happen to engage. Those of the fifth and sixth rates are commonly called Frigates (g).

Fleet.

Squadron.

A certain number of ships of war, at least above ten, are called a Fleet ; fewer make only a Squadron. The commanders of the fleet are an admiral, vice-admiral, and rear-admiral.

Single ships of war are commanded by sea-captains, who, on board their vessels, are as a colonel to a regiment.

S E C T. LX.

Revenue.

The support of the sovereign and his household, the payment of the several degrees of civil officers, and the military establishment, require vast sums. The state, however, must indispensably have a revenue answerable to such disbursements. The monies and incomes of the state, together with every thing appertaining to the administration of them, are included under the general name of Finances.

* For the different rates of the English ships of war, see Chambers's Cyclopaedia, or Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, Article RATE.

(g) Campbell's Life and Actions of the British Admirals, p. 14.

S E C T. LXI.

Money is the common measure of the ^{Money.} value of things and labour. Gold and silver having from the most remote times been used for such measure, pieces of these noble metals were marked with the stamp of the state, to ascertain their value. These are called Coins, and have an intrinsic ^{Coins.} and extrinsic value. The former is the fineness and weight of the metal itself; the latter it receives from an ordinance of the government, which likewise may alter it; whereas the former admits of no change.

The proportion appointed by the laws between the intrinsic and extrinsic value of coins, is termed the standard. The nearer the intrinsic and extrinsic value, the better are the coins; and of course the worse, where the difference is greater.

In the gold and silver for coining money, ^{Proportion between gold and silver.} a great deal depends on the reciprocal proportion of these metals. But this having in all times been so very different, and still continuing so in most countries, nothing positive can be said upon the subject.

S E C T. LXII.

The state's revenues arise either from its ^{The state's revenues.} own property, or from that of the people.

E 3

Among

Demesnes.

Among the former are, first, the crown-lands, or Demesnes: these are properly assigned to the support of the sovereign, on which account they are inalienable.

S E C T. LXIII.

From the
regalia.

There are also certain things and rights, in the use and benefit of which the primitive natural freedom of the inhabitants has been taken away, or at least limited: these are accounted as the state's property, and bring in certain revenues. Among these are, 1. Seas, lakes, and rivers. 2. Highways. 3. Forests. 4. Wild beasts. 5. Mines. 6. Salts. 7. Coinage. From these arise, 1. The water-royalties; containing harbour and anchorage, bridge, passage, and mill-tolls. 2. Passports, dues, land-tolls, postage. 3. Forestagium. 4. Hunting. 5. Working of mines. 6. Salt and coinage. But here it must be observed, that different states have different royalties; what is a royalty in one country, not being so in another (*b*).

Upon cer-
tain in-
comes.

There are farther some uncertain and casual incomes, which are likewise reckoned among the royalties; as fines, confiscations,

(*b*) Vid. Bockmeri Introd. in Jus Publ. Univers. Lib. I. cap. iv. §. 10.

inhe-

inheritances of aliens, or those who have no heirs, treasures found, and things forsaken (i).

S E C T. LXIV.

The greater part of the state's revenues arise from the property of the people, under the general name of taxes, rates, and duties. These are so many, and so various in their nature, as scarcely to be enumerated in regular classes. The most customary are the taxes on land; next, those laid on the very persons of the subjects, or on their trade, or their substance: others, again, on provisions, and other kinds of things for consumption; such are head-money, customs, and excise. To these may be added, duties on articles of shew and conveniency, as coaches, chairs, &c. and a multitude of other expedients, by which no small part of the cash of individuals is brought into the exchequer, or public treasury.

Taxes and
imposts
payable by
the people.

In cases of necessity the former taxes are augmented, or others imposed; such as the twentieth or fifteenth penny, free gifts, loans, &c. Expert financiers, in urgent exigencies, have recourse to other expedients for raising considerable sums; as lot-

(i) Huber de Jure Civit. Lib. I. Sect. III. c. vi. §. 40, 41, &c.

series, annuities (*k*). But to have always a large fund of ready money at hand, is infinitely the best and most effectual expedient.

S E C T. LXV.

How to increase the state's revenue.

The wealth of the subjects being the main source of the state's revenue, every lawful measure should be taken for encreasing the former. The most natural way for this is the improvement of the land and its products; so that all the inhabitants, according to their several degrees and callings, may be employed in a manner beneficial to the state; and thus not only earn a subsistence, but lay up money, or purchase lands.

S E C T. LXVI.

Agriculture.

The chief property of the state is its land, which is the more industriously and carefully to be tilled, as from thence must come the primary and most indispensable necessities; so that the very subsistence of the inhabitants, in a great measure, depends on its products. The great necessity and importance of agriculture is too evident to be enlarged on; and graziery is

(*k*) Concerning these and the advantageous use of them, see Mr. Sufmilch, Vol. II. cap. xxiii. §. 507.

so connected with it, that one can scarce subsist without the other.

If a land be so fruitful, that the three kingdoms of nature, or one or other of them, afford a surplus beyond what is necessary for home consumption, this is to be exported abroad, and made a profitable article of trade. But the profit will be much greater, if the natural and raw materials which admit of preparation, be turned into manufactures and fabrics*, before they are carried to a foreign market. Another great advantage of manufactures and fabrics, is, that they procure subsistence to multitudes; and consequently, encrease the number of the inhabitants, and thereby the national strength.

Manufac-
tures and
fabrics.

S E C T. LXVII.

Trade consists in the disposing of goods for money, or other goods; that is, in buying or bartering: and it is carried on either among the inhabitants, or with foreigners. The former is called *home*, the latter *foreign* commerce. Goods are ex-

Trade.

Home and
foreign
trade.

* By manufactures are understood such kinds of works, either of raw, or partly prepared materials, in which neither fire or hammer are required; whereas those works which are done by fire and forges, go by the name of fabrics. See Mr. Justi's Grundsätze Der Policey Wissenschaft, §. 150.

INTRODUCTORY PRINCIPLES

ported either by land or water; but the trade carried on beyond sea by ships, is the most considerable, and by which whole nations have become opulent and powerful.

S E C T. LXVIII.

Equilibrium
of trade.

If two nations only barter goods for goods, the trade between them is in equilibrio, to their reciprocal advantage. But where one adds money to make up the deficiency of its goods, the equilibrium no longer subsists; and the sale turns in favour of that which receives the money (1).

S E C T. LXIX.

Exchange.

Trade becoming more general and extensive, many schemes have been invented for its greater exactness and facility; such as exchange and banks. By means of the former, large sums are sent from one country to another in written draughts*; this class of merchants are termed bankers. The main article in banking is the proportion between the specie of one country and that of another; and this is very variable. In the

(1) Progrès du Commerce, p. 207.

* This invention is attributed to the Jews, who, when driven out of England and France, lodged their money in the hands of certain persons, on whom they afterwards gave draughts to others. See Spirit of Laws, Lib. XXI. cap. xvi.

settlement of this proportion, the several states must in general regulate themselves by that which has the most ready cash (*m*).

Banks are publick societies, instituted with the consent and guaranty of the state, for receiving money in trust; so that the disposal of it remains with the proprietors, who may transfer it to others. Such banks are particularly called *banks of exchange* (*n*), by way of distinction from *loan banks*, which lend money on interest. Some are of a complex constitution, being both *exchange* and *loan banks* (*o*).

Commerce, and particularly the foreign and maritime, is greatly promoted by trading companies. These are under the protection of the state by charter; and the members contribute a large capital, in order for their jointly carrying on some very considerable branch of trade. This capital is divided into a great number of shares (*p*); and according to the amount of them, every proprietor receives his portion of the profits, which is called a Dividend.

(*m*) Spirit of Laws, Lib. XXII. c. x.

(*n*) Franck. Institut. Jur. Camb. Lib. I. Sect. III. Tit. xi. §. 1, 2.

(*o*) Progrès du Commerce, p. 167, &c.

(*p*) Ibid. p. 191, 192, &c.

S E C T. LXX.

Foreign af-
fairs.

The objects of government hitherto considered lie within the inward constitution of the state; we now proceed to foreign affairs. These comprehend every thing relating to war and peace, negotiations, embassies, treaties, alliances with foreign states. The more considerable and powerful a state is, the busier the part it acts on the theatre of the world, and the more various and important must the affairs likewise be, which occur between such a state and foreign powers.

S E C T. LXXI.

Adminis-
tration of
government
affairs.

The government of a state comprehending so many and such important objects, which the sovereign himself cannot personally conduct; certain persons, or even boards and councils, are appointed, especially in large and monarchical states, for administering the affairs of government, immediately under the prince's inspection, and to transact whatever is necessary therein. These are called the Cabinet, or the Privy-council; and the members of these assemblies are stiled, Privy-counsellors, Cabinet-counsellors, or Ministers of State. Sometimes a Prime Minister is appointed, who,
in

in some measure, represents the sovereign. The variety of government affairs necessarily causing various departments in it, as those of the church, the law, army, marine, finances, trade, and foreign affairs, &c. each of those is conducted by one or more ministers of state, forming a college or board.

Its several
depart-
ments.

S E C T. LXXII.

The particular provinces and dependencies are governed by an officer, who sometimes, if the country be a kingdom, is stiled viceroy, and generally has a council.

Govern-
ment of par-
ticular pro-
vinces and
dependen-
cies.

Cities and towns have their own magistracy, either of the sovereign's nomination, or chosen by themselves. Villages are subject to the jurisdiction of the prince's officers, and the lord of the manor.

Cities and
towns.

Villages.

S E C T. LXXIII.

The fourth object of politicks is the ultimate end of the institution of a state, which consists in its security and welfare. As this end presupposes certain means for the attainment of it, the most prudent and mature deliberation is to be used in the choice and execution of such means. This is the business of policy, which lays down rules, by which they who sit at the helm

State-inter-
est.

Domestic
and foreign.

Domestic
interest of
the state.

helm may effectually maintain and promote the safety and welfare of the state. The spirit of these political rules is stiled State-Interest *. In this respect states are to be considered, 1. According to their internal constitution and form of government, and, 2. According to their situation and relation one to another. Thus every state has one set of political rules with regard to its domestic concerns and government, and another for its conduct towards other states. This constitutes a Domestic and Foreign State-Interest.

S E C T. LXXIV.

The domestic includes all lawful means for making the state wealthy, respectable, and powerful; as improving the arts, sciences, manufactures, trade, and navigation; peopling and cultivating the country, and keeping on foot a numerous military force. These are common to all states; but the difference of the forms of government suggests to the sovereign, or members of the government, more particular rules for their conduct in the administration of affairs. Hence arises that particular state-interest which is very different in all governments.

* The Italians term it, *Ragione di Stato*, or, Reason of State.

In an unlimited monarchy, the sovereign makes it one of his chief concerns that his power suffer no diminution. Thus it is his state-interest not to allow any order of men, and particularly the great, to become over-powerful; as, in such a case, the unlimited may be reduced to a limited sovereignty.

In an unlimited monarchy

In the latter, the sovereign and the states of the kingdom have an eye upon each other, so that the several orders keep within the limits of the constitution. The first sees, that neither the great nor the commonalty extend their immunities too far, so as to turn the state into an aristocracy or democracy; and the others watch against any stretches of the prerogative, which may prelude to the establishment of arbitrary power.

and a limited monarchy.

In an aristocracy, the state-interest is to exclude the commonalty from any share of government, and keep them in subjection, that they may not attempt to erect a democracy. On the other hand, it behoves the nobility in the administration to see, that no particular person affect a superiority over others, by which an aristocracy may easily degenerate into a monarchy.

Aristocracy.

In

Democracy.

In a democracy the state-interest is, that an equality be maintained among the citizens, and no extraordinary power or superiority be allowed to one or more over the rest of the body, as such pre-eminence may lead to the establishing of monarchy, or aristocracy.

In a body
of united
people.

In a political body of united nations the capital concern is, that the union be punctually observed: and the object of their chief attention must be, that none of the united members deviate from its obligations, or in the general consultations obtrude its opinions on the others; for this tends, in process of time, to make the others dependent, and the encroaching member becomes a kind of sovereign.

S E C T. LXXV.

Foreign
state-interest
variable and
uncertain.

Foreign state-interest is, by its nature, not only very different, but likewise extremely variable; for as it relates to the situation, and the proportion of states in regard to one another, that is, the strength and weakness of one in comparison of the other, which in all times and places is not alike; so nothing fixed and certain can be laid down for their conduct towards one another. All that can be said, is, that a state having cause to fear from the power of
its

neighbours, is to lay hold of every justifiable opportunity of curtailing it, and be as alert in augmenting its own strength and power.

S E C T. LXXVI.

This enlargement of dominion, and augmentation of power, has, both in ancient and modern times, been the particular scope of many nations. Some have placed their prosperity in wealth: some have held war and conquests to be most suitable to their interests; others an extensive trade and marine: and others in fine have comprehended in their views both the commercial and military objects.

Power, or opulence, or both jointly, the scope of many nations.

S E C T. LXXVII.

As individuals, either from a want of understanding, or from destructive passions, do not always make their real welfare the rule of their measures, the like is not seldom seen in governments. Many statesmen are so swayed by self-interest and other passions, as to sacrifice both the state and the people; and in their resolutions and undertakings, turn the deaf ear to just politics: this is called acting on a false state-interest.

False state-interest.

S E C T. LXXVIII.

Reciprocal
claims and
obligations
of states.

The behaviour observed by nations towards one another from state-interest, depends on the rules of policy, and is regulated by the circumstances of the times, which may give them an opportunity of advantaging themselves: but with legal claims which states or their sovereigns have on one another, or with stipulated obligations, the case is very different; these being grounded either on express conventions, or public laws, which must necessarily be complied with.

S E C T. LXXIX.

Observation on great
statesmen
and warriors.

Great statesmen and warriors have often been the chief instruments of the prosperity and glory of nations. The virtues and eminent qualities of such deserving personages,

Quorum fama inclyta longo

Tempore post cineres populorum in pectore vivit (g),

deserve honourable commemoration in politicks; and as little are the vices and failings of perfidious and weak statesmen or commanders, to be passed over in silence: the examples of both should be held out to posterity; the former for imitation, the latter for admonition.

(g) Marcell. Palingenius in Zodiac. Vit. P. M. 119.

S E C T.

S E C T. LXXX.

This is a short sketch of the objects to be treated of in Politics; and the knowledge of them necessarily recommends itself both to the learned by profession, and to statesmen; to the latter, indeed, they are of indispensable necessity (*r*). The ever-shifting variety of objects is a matter of no small entertainment (*s*): but the knowledge of these requires helps of many kinds, borrowed partly from other sciences, as geography, natural, civil, and literary history; together with travels and accounts of countries, state-papers, public records, conventions, treaties of peace, negotiations, ambassadors letters, and other state documents; lives of celebrated princes, statesmen, naval and land commanders. (*t*) To these helps, at present, the learned have free access; an advantage to which politics owe their being taught in universities like other sciences (*u*). Advantages and necessity of politics

(*r*) Vid. 10. Andr. Bosii, Introd. General. in Notitiam Rer. pub. cap. IX. et X. §. 2, 3, 4. Everardi Ottonis Notit. Rer. publ.

(*s*) Bosius et Otto, II. cit.

(*t*) Vid. Bosius, cap. IV. V. VI. Otto in Prolegom. §. 68.

(*u*) Vid. III. Achenwallii Dissert. de Notitia Rerum publicarum Academiis vindicata. Goettinge, 1748. 4.

THE PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

Of EUROPE in General.

SECT. I.

EUROPA, daughter to Agenor king of the Phenicians, a beauty so accomplished that Jupiter himself became enamoured of her, was by the Antients thought to have given name to our part of the world (*a*). But this derivation being grounded on a manifest fable, or, at least, on very uncertain accounts, a celebrated modern wri-

Origin of
the name.

(*a*) Herodot. lib. IV. cap. xlv. Nicol. Gurtlerus in Originib. Mundi, lib. I. cap. iii. cites the following passage from Festus: "It is certain that Europe, the third part of the world, was so called from Europa, daughter to Agenor; but some talk of Jupiter's being in love with her, and carrying her away into that country in the shape of a bull; others, that she was carried off by pirates in a ship which had the figure of a bull in its prow. Some relate that Agenor, with his Phenicians, taken with the beauty of the country, made himself master of it, under colour of his daughter's having been carried away thither."

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

ter has found the origin of the name in the Phenician words *ur-appa*, White-face; he therefore thinks the Phenicians to have been the first who gave that appellation to the Europeans, on account of their fair complexions (*b*), in which they far exceed the swarthy Africans.

S E C T. II.

Extent and
limits.

Europe reaches from the 36th to the 71st degree of northern latitude; and thus, a small part excepted, lies in the temperate zone. Its length is usually reckoned nine hundred geographical miles, from Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, to the mouth of the river Obi in Russia; and its breadth five hundred and fifty such miles, from the North-Cape in Norway, to Cape Matapan in Morea. It is by much the smallest of the four parts of the world; for were our globe divided into three hundred parts, Asia would contain 101, America 90, Africa 82, and Europe only 27 (*c*). Europe, on the south, is bounded by the Mediterranean sea; westward, by the Atlantic ocean; northward, it confines on the North and Frozen Seas; and its

(*b*) Bochart Phaleg. lib. IV. cap. xxxiii. p. 337.

(*c*) Present State of Europe, Chap. II. p. 113.

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eastern limits are the Hellespont and the Black-Sea. Farther eastward, it joins to Asia; and the Antients made the river Tanais, or Don, the boundary of these two parts of the world, as the Poet introduces it:

(d) ——— Tanais diversa nomina mundi
Imposuit ripis, Asiæque et terminus idem
Europæ, mediæ dirimens confinia terræ,
Nunc hunc, nunc illam, qua flectitur, ampliat orbem.
Luc. l. iii. v. 273, 276.

With Tanais falling from Riphean snows,
Who forms the world's division as he goes,
With noblest names his rising banks are crown'd,
This stands for Europe's, that for Asia's bound.

Modern geographers extend this boundary to the Volga, and others still farther, even to the Obi (e): but according to a just observation of Strahlenberg, the Riphean mountains, by the Russians called Kamenoi, or Wellichy Poyas, that is, the Stony, or Great Rocky Girdle, running southward from the 70th to the 54th degree, form the most natural boundary between Europe and Asia; there being on both sides of this enormous chain, a very great difference in the countries, in the animals, and in the

(d) Lucan. lib. III.

(e) Cluverius Introduction to Geography, B. I. c. xiv.
Becman in Hist. Orb. Terr. Geog. et Civ. P. I. cap. iv. §. 5.

products (*f*). By this limitation, however, Europe loses no inconsiderable part of its above mentioned length.

S E C T. III.

Mountains.

The many mountains in Europe are, by some, reckoned to occupy the tenth part of its continent (*g*). The highest are the Alps, one arm of which runs through France to the Pyrenees, and under that name farther on to the ocean. A second extends itself through Syria, Hungary, Dalmatia, as far as Thrace, and the Black Sea. A third chain takes its course southward through Italy, where it is called the Appennine. The Sudet Mountain, between Bohemia and Silesia; the Hartz in Germany; the Carpathian mountains, which separate Hungary from Poland; are also connected with the Alps. In Scotland, Norway, and Sweden, are likewise several high ridges; and Europe cannot in general be said to contain many tracts quite level.

S E C T. IV.

Waters.

The greatest part of Europe being environed by the sea, it may be properly called

(*f*) Strahlenberg's Northern and Eastern part of Europe and Asia, in the Introduct. Sect. VI. §. 15—19.

(*g*) Burnet's Theory of the Earth, Book I. c. ii.

a large peninsula ; but many of the European countries, instead of being contiguous to others, are separated by several waters, as France from Great Britain by the Channel ; as the latter is from the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, and Norway, by the German ocean. Between North Jutland, the islands of Funen and Zealand, and the coast of Sweden and Norway, is an arm of the North Sea, called the Kattegat, and Skagerrack (1), through which is an inlet into the East Sea (2), or Baltic. This is a very large gulph between Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Ingermania, Estonia, Livonia, Courland, Prussia, and Germany. An arm of the Baltic runs northward into Sweden, and another eastward between Finland, Ingermania, and Estonia. The former is called the Gulph of Bothnia, the latter that of Finland : farther north towards Archangel, the northern ocean forms a gulph known by the name of the White Sea. The Black Sea separates Europe from Africa, and through the Straights of Caffa (3) communicates with that of Azoph ; (4)

(1) Sinus Codanus.

(2) This name was given it by the Hollanders, who likewise called the Hans-towns Easterlings, and Eastern Staples, by reason of their eastern situation.

(3) Bosphorus Cimmerius.

(4) Palus Mæotis.

and

and through the Streights of Constantinople (5), and the Mar di Marmora (6), with the Egean sea, as this with the Mediterranean: the latter spreads itself into a gulph between the coasts of Dalmatia, Istria, and Italy, which is called the Adriatic Sea.

The great foreign trade carried on by means of these waters, has occasioned most of the European states to become maritime powers.

S E C T. V.

Fertility

Though Europe, by reason of the different quality of the climate and countries, is not every where equally fruitful; yet it produces a sufficiency for the necessities, conveniencies, and pleasure of its inhabitants, and of many things even a superabundance. What little is wanting, or rather the articles of luxury, are imported from the other three parts of the world.

in the animal kingdom.

Of the animal kingdom Europe has the best and most useful kinds, both of tame and wild beasts and fowls, as likewise of fishes; though as to fisheries, some European nations, on account of trade, carry them on to the north and westward, at a great distance from the limits of Europe.

(5) Bosphorus Thracicus.

(6) Propontis.

That

That beneficial insect the silk-worm, which for a long time was a stranger in Europe*, is now bred in most European countries.

In the vegetable kingdom, Europe indeed must yield to the other parts of the globe, which have a greater number and more valuable species of trees, herbs, and plants. Our principal fruit-trees are likewise of exotic origin†.

The vine, which thrives best in the south part of Europe‡, is, unquestionably, a

* The Romans had their first silk stuffs from Persia; and it was not till the time of the emperor Justinian the Great that silk was woven at Constantinople. He procured silk-worms eggs from India by means of two monks, who taught the people of Constantinople the method of breeding silk-worms, and making silk. Zonaras Annal. Tome III. in Corp. Hist. Byzantin. fol. 130. Under the emperor Conrad III. Roger king of Sicily having, in his Grecian wars, made some silk-weavers prisoners, brought them away with him to Palermo, and by these was the first culture and weaving of silk propagated throughout all Sicily and Calabria. Fazellus de Rebus Sicul. Dec. I. Lib. I. in Scriptorib. Rer. Sicul. p. 16, 17.

† Lemons and oranges came from Media and Persia; cherries from Ceresunt in Pontus; peaches from Persia; plums from Armenia and Syria; figs and pomegranates from Carthage; and china-oranges from China. Busching's Introduction, §. 26.

‡ The best wine in Europe grows beneath the 50th degree of north latitude, and becomes both the more palatable and stronger, the farther a country lies to the southward. Of all the European wines, the Greek are the strongest. The person who first introduced the use of Greek wine into Naples, was murdered by his drunken guests, from a conceit that he had given them a kind of poison to drink. This singular adventure is painted as a document on the wall of St. Januarius's church in that city. Pauli Hentzneri Itinerar. p. 313.

a na-

a native of Asia; and tobacco, of which at present such quantities are grown in most parts of Europe, we owe to the New World.

In the fossil kingdom.

The fossil kingdom in Europe is not inconsiderable, but we have very little of the noblest metals, gold and silver, comparatively to the other parts of the globe: and tho' several kinds of gems are found in some European countries, yet, like pearls, they do not come up to the Oriental.

S E C T. VI.

Division of its countries.

There are in Europe twenty-three independent states, viz. three empires, 1. the German, 2. the Russian, 3. and the Turkish; eleven kingdoms, 4. Portugal, 5. Spain, 6. France, 7. Great Britain, 8. Denmark, 9. Sweden, 10. Poland, 11. Hungary, 12. Prussia, 13. Sardinia, 14. The Two Sicilies; seven free states or republics; 15. The United Provinces, 16. The Helvetic Body, 17. Venice, 18. Genoa, 19. Lucca, 20. Ragusa, 21. San Marino. And lastly, among the independent powers of Europe may be classed, 22. the pope, on account of the ecclesiastical state; 23. and the Knights of St. John, on account of the island of Malta. But the difference between the power and extent of these several states is very

very great; and the republic of San Marino, which the Italians nick-name *La Repubblica*, or the Petty Republic, is to Russia scarce as one to three hundred thousand.

S E C T. VII.

What Europe wants in extent, is abundantly compensated by the large possessions of some European states in the other parts of the world. The greatest, and likewise the best part of America is under Spain, France, Great Britain, and Portugal. To those crowns likewise belong considerable tracts and places in Africa and Asia; and the possessions of the Dutch East-India Company in those parts are not less valuable: besides, the whole northern part of Asia is subject to Russia. All these dependencies taken jointly, are of a much larger extent than Europe itself; and this must create a very high idea of the grandeur and power of the European nations, which must farther be much heightened by considering the numberless quantities of gold and silver, of gems, and other costly commodities, with which it is furnished by those remote countries.

Depend-
cies.

S E C T.

S E C T. VIII.

Revolutions
in Europe.

Europe, in the times of remote antiquity, was inhabited by a multitude of smaller nations independent of one another. Among these, the Greeks and Romans became the most celebrated, by reason of their superior skill in the arts of peace and war, and their extensive conquests. The former erected, under Alexander the Great, an empire of a prodigious extent both in Europe and Asia; but it was of a short duration. The latter, whose whole domain was at first confined to their small town, began with making themselves masters of the several nations of Italy, and afterwards by their victorious arms, extended their dominion in all the three known parts of the globe; so that, according to a poet's expression, the whole universe was subject to the Romans.

*Jupiter arce sua totum cum spectet in orbem,
Nil nisi Romanum, quod teneatur, habet.*

OVID. Fast. l. I. v. 85.

This extensive and celebrated monarchy, which amidst many intestine wars and commotions, supported itself for ages, at length became divided into the Eastern and Western empire. The latter was soon overthrown by the irruptions of the Germans
and

and northern nations; and from its ruins are risen most of the European states. Among these the French monarchy, by the conquests of Charles the Great, acquired an eminent superiority; to which the revival^{800.} of the dignity of Western emperor in his person, added a farther lustre: and had his successors equalled him in valour and prudence, it is not improbable that they would have united under their sceptre all the European possessions of the Romans. But by their divisions and misconduct, this monarchy fell into several pieces, of which were formed three kingdoms, Italy, France, and^{843.} Germany; and at length the Roman western empire was inseparably annexed to the latter.

Christianity coming in time to spread^{964.} over Europe, brought all the states of this part of the world into a kind of community and union; so that in the opinion of some, the whole European Christendom made but one political body, with the pope for its spiritual, and the emperor for its temporal head (i). But this absolutely contradicts the common ideas of the freedom and independency of states. The formality of rank alone excepted,

(i) Furstenerius (Georg. Guil. Leibnitius) de jure suprematus ac Legationis Principum Germaniæ in præf. et ejusd. Cod. Jur. gent. Diplom. in præf.

the emperor has no real dignity above a king; and much less has he been invested with any authority over them. The case, however, has been very different relatively to the spiritual power assumed by the See of Rome. The popes maintained that they are the supreme head, and that the temporal powers are absolutely subordinate to them (*k*). They arrogated to themselves the right of making laws, and issuing orders, leaving to the emperor and kings the honour of obedience. A consequence of this papal ambition were the croisades. By their frantic and turbulent practices all Europe rose up in arms, to wrest Palestine out of the hands of the Saracens, and to restore Christianity in the East by the sword. Their view was to set up a new monarchy in that part of the world; and as all the princes and people vied with each other who should be most forward in sacrificing their blood and treasure in this enterprise, to augment and strengthen the dominion which the popes had already acquired in Europe, the latter in a great measure compassed their design. The emperors of the house of Suabia, who, after the division of the empire of the

(*k*) C. I. Extravag. comm. de majorit. et Obed.

Franks, became the greatest potentates in Europe, set themselves against the ambition of the popes with great spirit and perseverance; but the latter allowed themselves no rest till they had totally ruined and extirpated so dangerous a family.

Since that time all the European powers ^{1263.} have been in a state of mediocrity; for the conquests of Edward III. and Henry V. in France, were of short duration. Likewise the monarchy of the three kingdoms, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, set up by the renowned queen Margaret, soon saw its ^{1397.} period; and the consequences of that union were continual quarrels and wars between those northern nations.

The Eastern empire, which was continually distracted by intestine commotions, and from which the Saracens and Turks had gradually wrested its best territories, was at length reduced to so narrow a compass, as to consist of little more than the capital Constantinople. Of this sultan Mahomet II. made himself master in the year 1443; and he and his successors have ever since bore the title of emperors. Thus sprung up in Europe a new Mahometan state, which has long been formidable to the neighbouring kingdoms of Hungary and Poland, and even to the German empire.

1469.

1491

1496.

1519.

The sixteenth century saw a great revolution both in the temporal and spiritual state of Europe. Spain had before been divided into several kingdoms; but the marriage of Ferdinand of Arragon with Isabella of Castile, united most of the Spanish territories under one sovereignty. Soon after was discovered the New World, and the Spaniards reduced the greatest and best part of it; so that since these conquests, whole fleets go annually from Spain, and return with immense quantities of gold and silver. By the marriage between archduke Philip and the infanta Joan, the Spanish monarchy came to the House of Austria, with the addition of the hereditary states of Burgundy, among which were the greatest part of the Low-Countries, at that time very wealthy. Charles V. who was a fruit of this marriage, united in his person the dignities of Roman emperor and King of Spain, being thus the most powerful monarch whom Europe had ever known since the time of Charles the Great.

France about the same period, received a very considerable aggrandizement in the resumption of all the feudal principalities, and annexing them to the crown: Spain, however, was yet too strong for her. It was this superiority which first put other powers

on the scheme of preserving a balance between the two crowns; and Henry VIII. king of England, made it his boast, that he held this balance in his hands (*l*); though in the wars between Charles V. and Francis I. he gave himself little concern about keeping it. Thus the former retained his overpoise with a singular constancy of good fortune till the latter end of his reign, losing it when he was least apprehensive of a reverse. The Reformation, which began ¹⁵¹⁷ in Germany, brought about a very important alteration of affairs, and very much to the detriment of the see of Rome. Its sovereignty was greatly curtailed in regard both to the arrogance with which it had been exercised, and to its extent. Europe became divided into two religious parties; one adhering to the pope, the other separating from him. The latter he looked on as so many heretics and rebels, whom he was for reducing to obedience by the sword; and particularly he instigated the emperor to take this good work in hand. This prince intended at the same time to execute a grand scheme which he had formed against the liberties of Germany,

(*l*) Science du Gouvernem. de M. de Real, vi. partie. p. 446.

1546.

and accordingly was the first European prince who appeared in arms against those who had separated from the Romish church. But the issue of this undertaking fell so short of his expectation, that it put him out of conceit both of the sovereignty and the world.

1556.

He, however, left to his son Philip II. a very large and powerful monarchy; containing Spain, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, Milan, the county of Burgundy, all the Netherlands, the gold and silver kingdoms of Mexico and Peru, together with other large possessions in the New World. To

1580.

this formidable power Philip added Portugal, and its settlements in the East and West-Indies; so that never was a prince known with dominions of such an extent, having possessions in all the four parts of the globe. But this prince's reign was the period of Spanish grandeur: his continual wars, and those of his successors, extremely impaired the monarchy. They had, indeed, great designs in view: they were for enlarging their dominions, reducing nations who had shaken off their yoke, and assisting Ferdinand II. to extinguish Protestantism, and bring the German princes under subjection. But in every article they miscarried,

carried, and especially in the latter, which France and Sweden frustrated; the treaties of Munster and of Osnabrug put a check on the emperor's power, and secured the freedom of Germany and the Protestant religion. By those treaties, Europe likewise acquired two new free states: the Swiss cantons, and the republic of the United Netherlands. To the former, the oppressions of the Austrian governors gave rise: the latter was owing to the spiritual and temporal tyranny of the Spaniards: both are memorials of the decline of the Austrian, German, and Spanish power.

From this time, and still more since the treaty of the Pyrenees, France gained the ascendancy. Lewis XIV. grew to be what Charles V. and Philip II. had been: and as all nations had formerly united against Spain for preserving the ballance, so now from the like view, a general alliance was formed against France; and as Charles V. and Philip II. were said to have aimed at the universal monarchy of Europe, so, with like reason, was the same charge brought against Lewis XIV.

This prince enlarged France by many considerable acquisitions in war; which, at the treaties of Munster, the Pyrenees,

1688.

1697.

1700.

1713.

Aix-la-Chapelle, and Nimeguen, were formally ceded to him by Spain and the empire; and in the following war, which was terminated by the peace of Ryswick, he withstood half Europe leagued against him.

Soon after this he had the satisfaction to see his grandson on the Spanish throne; but to maintain him in possession of it he was obliged to enter on a new and very burthensome war, in which the confederates had so far the advantage, that he was near losing all the fruits of his fifty years victories. But the queen of Great Britain helped him out of this adversity by the peace of Utrecht, which was no less glorious than advantageous to him; having fully obtained the capital end for which he had embarked in the war, and wrested Spain and India from the House of Austria, though the latter had a much better right to those possessions.

France, however, had been extremely weakened by this long and bloody war; but Great Britain was rather become more powerful. This crown, besides obtaining great advantages for itself from France and Spain, prescribed the articles of the peace; by which, among other particulars, Naples, the Milanese, and Sardinia, with the Spanish Netherlands, were given to the emperor Charles

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Charles VI. who made over Sicily to Victor Amadeus Duke of Savoy.

Thus the peace of Utrecht gave to Europe another crowned head, a King of Sicily, who within a few years was obliged to exchange it for Sardinia.

1717.

Before the great war which was carried on in the south and west part of Europe for the Spanish succession, another had broke out in the north, which lasted much longer, and occasioned great revolutions. Sweden, which in the last century had been the most considerable power in the north, lost in this war the greater part of its dependencies, and was reduced to the lowest ebb. Russia, which before had very little interfered in the concerns of Europe, aggrandized itself by its conquests, and still more by setting up a military force, intirely in the European discipline, and by the introduction of arts and sciences, with which, till then, Russia had been totally unacquainted. The sovereign of this vast monarchy, Peter I. heightened its dignity by assuming the title of emperor, which, in time, all the European powers successively acknowledged.

1709.

1722.

At the same period rose in the north of Europe another considerable state. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg had in the beginning of the present century taken on him

1701.

the title of King of Prussia, without gaining thereby the least increase of territory; but his two successors, by improvements in the constitution and police of the country, by good regulations in the finances, by an increase of the revenue consequential to those regulations; and particularly by keeping on foot a numerous and well disciplined army, and by the conquests which that army has atchieved; has raised its power to such a pitch, that the crown of Prussia is of considerable weight, not only in the affairs of the North, but likewise in the general concerns of Europe.

The peace of Utrecht had not totally extinguished the contest for the Spanish monarchy between the emperor Charles VI. and king Philip V. They came to a fresh war in Italy, which, by the powerful intervention of France and Great Britain, was first terminated preliminarily, and afterwards very secretly at Vienna, by a decisive treaty of peace and friendship between the Imperial and Spanish courts. This close alliance, in which the then queen of Spain, Elizabeth of Parma, chiefly aimed at a marriage between her eldest son Don Carlos, and the eldest of the emperor's daughters, Maria Theresa, the present empress-dowager (*m*), oc-

(*m*) Memoires de Montgon. Tom. 1. p. 149. et suiv.

caſioned the treaty of Hanover between ¹⁷³⁶ France, Great Britain, and Pruffia. Both parties endeavoured to ſtrengthen their alliances, and the principal powers of Europe ſided with one or the other. The two branches of the houſe of Bourbon were now ſeparated, and at open variance; but the Spaniſh court ſeeing itſelf defeated in its capital deſign, viz. the Auſtrian marriage, things ſoon returned into their natural ſituation. Spain again united itſelf with France; and the effects of this appeared not long after, in an alliance which they both entered into againſt the emperor, on his oppoſition to the French deſigns in the election of a king of Poland. In this war the emperor had the diſadvantage, relinquishing at the peace the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to Don Carlos of Spain, who thus again encreaſed the number of ſovereigns in Europe. The king of France, to whom this peace gave certain expectations of annexing the Dutchy of Lorrain to his domains, in conſideration of ſuch acceſſion, took on himſelf the guaranty of the emperor's pragmatic ſanction, for ſecuring the ſucceſſion in his dominions; and ſome years before, Great Britain and the United Provinces had laid themſelves under the like obligation. But that monarch dy- ¹⁷³⁷

ing

1740.

ing after a very unfortunate war, which, pursuant to his alliance with Russia, he had entered into against the Turks; France, so far from making good the said guaranty, supported Bavaria in its claim to the Austrian succession. The two maritime powers, however, acted up to their obligations with great firmness, so as to assist the emperor's heiress with succours of men and money, and to procure the Imperial dignity for her husband Francis-Stephen, Grand-duke of Tuscany. To them, in short, it was owing that, of her father's hereditary dominions, she lost only Silesia, Parma, and Placentia. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle put an end to this war. Europe now found itself divided into two great parties, which, by the equality of the forces they could oppose to each other, kept the balance in an equipoise. On one side was Great Britain, Austria, Russia, the United Provinces, and the king of Sardinia; the other was composed of the three Bourbon branches, the kings of France, of Spain, and of the Two Sicilies, together with Prussia and Sweden.

1755.

1756.

But this system was of no long duration. A new war in the mean time breaking out between Great Britain and France about the limits of their American countries, the former entered into an alliance with Prussia, and

and the latter with Austria. To this last alliance acceded Russia, Sweden, and the ^{1757.} greater part of the German empire; and at length it came to be farther strengthened by Spain; so that the parties seemed very ^{1762.} unequal, and the former by much the weakest; yet at the upshot it proved the strongest. In this war, which was carried on with more animosity and more armies than were ever known in Europe, Great Britain exerted itself to that degree, and with such fortunate consequences, that the united French and Spaniards were obliged to accept of such articles as this power prescribed to them. Thus a comparison of former ^{1763.} and present events shews, that as Spain was the first European power in the sixteenth century, and France in the seventeenth, Great Britain may be deemed such in the present century; so uncertain and mutable is the grandeur of states.

— Sic robora verti
Cernimus, atque illas assumere pondera gentes,
Concidere has (n).

S E C T. IX.

The European nations are of various origin, which, with other natural and moral Character of the Europeans.

(n) Ovid. Metam. lib. xv. v. 420.

causes,

causes, makes a visible difference in their qualities and manners; so that no general portraiture can be drawn of them. Compared, however, with the inhabitants of the other parts of the world, they may be affirmed infinitely to surpass them in all sciences and arts, and especially those of government and war, navigation and commerce. Aristotle gives this character of the Europeans, that they are brave and zealous assertors of their liberties, but something deficient in capacity, either to govern their own states, or rule over others (*o*). But this exception, together with the arrogant saying of the Chinese, "that they have two eyes, and the Europeans but one;" (*p*) is fully refuted by present experience.

S E C T. X.

European
languages.

The various origin of the European nations has necessarily occasioned a great difference in their languages. The European original languages may be divided into the greater and the lesser. The former are three, the Latin, German and Sclavonian. The first spread itself throughout all the Roman conquests, but has been long since confounded

(*o*) Aristotle's Polit. lib. VII.

(*p*) Petr. Maffei Hist. Ind. lib. VI. p. 275.

amidst

amidst national emigrations, and preserved only by the learned, whose peculiar language it continues in every part of Europe. It has farther the pre-eminence of being used in the Romish church for divine worship, in the pope's secretary's office, and may be called the European State Language (*q*); all treaties of peace, and other conventions, between the powers of this part of the world being usually drawn up in it; altho' its daughter, the French, has for some time past begun to supplant it; * and is at present grown into such favour, as to be used in the several courts of Germany, and all over the North. The other languages derived from the Latin are the Wallachian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian: the last may be called the speech of European music.

The German language is, besides Germany, spoken in part of Swisserland and Lorrain, in Royal and Ducal Prussia; in the towns and among the gentry in Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia; likewise in some particular parts of Poland, Hungary, and Transilvania; and the northern powers of-

(*q*) Gorg. Wilh. Overkampi *Commentatio de Ratione Status Curia Romanæ circa usum Latinæ Linguae in sacris cultuque publico.* (Jenæ 1732. 8.) shewing the origin and reasons of this custom.

* The rights of the Latin language, however, are secured by a declaration, that the use of the French shall not be of any prejudice to it.

ten make use of it in state instruments. Akin to it are the Danish, Norwegian, the Swedish, the Dutch, and, in some measure, the English.

The Slavonian language comprehends the third part of Europe, and, according to some, is spoken by sixty different nations (*r*). From the Slavonian are derived the Russian, Bohemian, and Moravian; it is likewise used, though with different dialects, in Hungary, Stiria, the Ukrain, and Lusatia.

The lesser original languages are, 1. The Greek; but this has undergone such alterations by the Turks subduing the Eastern empire, that the language now spoken in Greece is called the *new Greek*; the old language being used only by the learned. The others are, 2. The Cantabrian, used in Biscay and part of Navarre. 3. The Cambrian in the principality of Wales and Lower Britany. 4. The Irish in Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland *. 5. The Islandic

(*r*) Becman Hist. Orb. Terr. Geogr. et Civil. Part. I. c. ix. §. 5.

* This and the two former are supposed to be the offspring of the old Celtic; the great extent and nature of which is treated of at large in the following work; *Memoires sur la Langue Celtique*, contenant 1. L'Histoire de cette Langue. 2. Une Description Etymologique des villes, rivières, montagnes, forêts, &c. des Gauls, de la meilleure partie de l'Espagne, de l'Italie, de la Grande Bretagne. 3. Un Dictionnaire Celtique, par M. Bullet, à Befancon, 1754-3 Tomes, fol.

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in Iceland and some parishes of Dalecarlia.
6. The Finnish in Finland, Esthonia, and Lapland. 7. The Lithuanian in Livonia, Courland, a part of Lithuania, and in Prussian Lithuania. 8. The Turkish in Turkey and Crim Tartary (s).

S E C T. XI.

All countries in Europe are not equally populous, which is partly owing to their different situation, and the greater or less fertility; partly also to the manners and qualities of the people, their religion and form of government. Europe, considering its extent, might contain near five hundred and fifty millions of inhabitants (t); yet the highest computation makes them only a hundred and fifty millions. * This number

Number of
its inhabi-
tants.

- (s) Becman, p. I. c. iii. §. 3. Busching's Introduction.
(t) Sufmilch, Vol. II. c. 20.

* Baron Bielfeld computes in Portugal	}	10 Millions.
and Spain		
France	—	20
Italy, and its Islands	—	8
Great Britain	—	8
Germany, the Low Countries, Swifferland	—	30
Denmark, Norway, Sweden	—	6
Russia, with all its conquests	—	18
Poland, Bohemia, Hungary, and	}	50
Turkey in Europe		
		150 Millions.

See his Institutions Politiques, Tom. II. c. xiv.

is

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

is hindered from encreasing, as under certain circumstances it probably would, first, by the many wars in which the greater part of Europe is frequently involved; secondly by the numerous armies kept on foot even in the times of peace, and of whom the greatest part

According to M. Busching's computation,

Russia in Europe contains	—	20 Millions.
Germany	—	24
Poland, with its dependencies	—	20
France	—	17
Turkey	—	14
Hungary	—	10
Great Britain and Ireland	—	8
Italy	—	9
Spain	—	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
The Low Countries, and Swisserland	—	6
Denmark and Norway	—	2
Sweden	—	2
Portugal	—	2
Royal Prussia	—	$\frac{3}{4}$
		147 $\frac{1}{4}$

See his Introduction, §. 63.

According to Mr. Sufmilch, Vol. II. cap. 20. there are

In Portugal and Spain	—	10 Millions.
France	—	17
Great Britain	—	8
All the Netherlands	—	5
Swisserland	—	1
Italy, and the Islands	—	10
Denmark	—	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sweden	—	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Russia	—	24
Livonia, and Courland	—	2
Poland	—	12
Hungary	—	6
Turkey in Europe	—	8
Germany	—	24
		130

die

die unmarried; the various and extensive settlements of the Europeans in the other parts of the world, and to which great numbers remove every year to make their fortunes; and lastly, the sea-service, and naval trade, in which many meet with an untimely death. These several causes must necessarily diminish the number of inhabitants in Europe; and the more, as the loss is not recruited by any emigrants from other parts of the world.

S E C T. XII.

The inhabitants of the European states are divided into four principal classes or orders; the nobility, the clergy, the citizens, and the peasantry. In the Roman Catholic countries, the clergy constitute the first order; but in the Protestant, it is the nobility. In all Christian states in Europe, nobility is hereditary; and with this advantageous pre-eminence, that the great employments, ecclesiastical, civil, and military, are filled out of this body. Nobility is founded either on the antient and immemorial possession of ancestors, or on records, by which some families, not noble, obtain a patent for nobility (u).

Difference
of ranks in
the Euro-
pean states.

(u) Hertii Elem. Doctr. Civil. Part I. Sect. 5. Parag. 12.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The antient European nobility, in general, owe their origin to war. Fighting was the only business with which the German nations, who founded most of the states in this part of the world, were acquainted. This was the only road to glory and nobility; and to this day, the military nobility in France stand in a much higher rank of esteem than those who belong to the law (x).

————— Mavortia
Nobilitas spoliis armisque exultat avitis (y).

Superior
and Inferior
nobility.

The high posts with which the nobility were invested, and which afterwards became hereditary in their families, have, in length of time, introduced such a disparity between them, as to be divided into Superior and Inferior nobility, which obtains in most parts of Europe. The former are distinguished by certain titles, with great privileges annexed to them. The titles of the superior nobility are, 1. in German, Hertzog (z); in Latin, Dux; French, Duc; Italian, Duca; Spanish, Duque; English, Duke. 2. German, Markgraf (a); Latin, Marchio; French and English, Marquis;

(x) Spirit of Nations, B. II. ch. vi. p. 132, 133.

(y) Claudian. in Epithal. Pallad. et Celer. v. 70.

(z) Bechmani. Synt. Dignit. Illustr. Dissertat. X. cap. 2. §. 1.

(a) Id. Dissertat. XII. cap. xi. §. 6, 7.

Italian, Marchese ; Spanish, Marques †. 3. German, Graf (*b*) ; Lat. Comes ; French, Comte ; Italian, Conte ; Spanish, Conde ; English, Earl *. 4. Viconte (*c*), a French title ; in Latin, Vicecomes, or Vicarius Comitatus ; Italian, Viscomite ; Spanish, Vizconde ; and English, Viscount †. 5. Baron (*d*).

Besides these several classes of the superior nobility, Germany has another, bearing the title of Fursts (*e*), which ranks between the duke and marquis and the count. In England and France, it is only the males of the royal family who are stiled Fursten, or princes ; except that in the latter, a few eminent families likewise partake of this honour. This title in Spain and Portugal

† Though the titles of duke and marquis are used in Germany, Italy, Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal ; yet the reigning dukes in Germany, and some such there are in Italy, are far superior to those in the other said kingdoms, having the titles of sovereigns of the country, and almost all the prerogatives. The like difference is there between the German Markgrave, and the French and other Marquisses. Germany, besides Markgraves, has likewise Landgraves, and both are on a level with Dukes.

(*b*) Ibid. Dissert. XII. cap. i. §. 1, 2, &c.

* So the English call their own Graves ; but the foreign they distinguish by the title of Count.

(*c*) Becmani Dissert. XII. cap. iii. §. 11.

† This title is not used in Germany. Some compare the Viscount with the German Burgraves ; (see Becman. Dissert. XII. cap. iii. §. 11.) which will by no means answer in general ; some Burgraves are equal to princes, and precede Graves. Becm. Diert. XII. c. ii. §. 11.

(*d*) Loccenius in Antiquit. Sueco-Goth. Lib. II. c. x. p. 62. Becmani Dissert. XI. c. i. §. 1, 2, 3.

(*e*) Becman. Dissert. XI. cap. i. §. 1, 2, 3.

is very rare, but Italy has abundance of princes. In Russia the Kneze are reckoned on a footing with princes.

The lower nobility are such who, without any of the above titles, have certain privileges, and particularly bear a coat of arms.

In the northern kingdoms, it is only of late that there has been any distinction of nobility. Counts and barons were first introduced into Sweden by Eric XIV. and into Denmark by Christian V.

Poland, to this day, has but one kind of nobility; for though some families bear the title of prince, or count, yet having been mostly conferred by foreign potentates, it does not give them the least superiority in the public assemblies, or distinction above the other nobility or gentry.

Chivalry.

The nobility gave rise to chivalry, so famous in the middle ages (f); being an engagement of persons by a solemn vow, at their own charge and peril, to protect and defend religion, widows, and orphans, and all helpless persons in distress (g). Another capital duty in chivalry was, to defend the fair-sex, when in any danger of

(f) Boulainvilliers dans l'Abregé Chronol. de l'Hist. de France, Tom. I. p. 325, 326. where he mentions a singular cause of chivalry being instituted.

(g) Velly Hist. de France, Tom. IV. p. 414.

their

their life or virtue *. On these accounts, the nobility who had so engaged were held in great honour, and enjoyed distinguished privileges (b); and chivalry was in such consideration, that kings themselves became members of that glorious body, and were dubbed knights †.

From this chivalry, which was general, and not confined to one nation, and had its beginning in the eleventh century, are derived all the celebrated orders, spiritual and temporal, now existing in Europe. The former were chiefly instituted for the defence of the Christian religion, and making war on the Infidels, as well as for other devout purposes; such were the Knights of Malta, the Templars, the Teutonic Knights, &c. The latter are either military or honorary. The first are given to land or sea-

* The Portuguese Academy of History tells us, that some knights of their nation, or Castilians, rescued the virgins, whom, by treaty between Aurelius king of Asturias and Abderama king of the Moors, the former was annually to deliver up to the latter, in lieu of a tribute. *Colleccam dos Documentos e Memorias da Academia Real da Historia Portugueza, de 1722. Na Conferencia do 2 Janeiro.* These expeditions undertaken in behalf of such distressed damsels, probably gave rise to the Spanish knight-errantry.

(b) Velly, *Hist. de France*, Tom. IV. p. 18, 21.

† The French kings were formerly dubbed knights before their coronation: Francis I. received that honour from the renowned knight Bayard; and Henry II. from Marshal du Biez. *Ceremonial de France*, ap. Becman. *Dissert.* XIX. cap. 1. §. 1.

officers, as an incentive to valour, or recompence of good services; the second are conferred as marks of particular honour on principal officers, civil and military.

S E C T. XIV.

Form of government in European states,

The most ancient European nations accounted liberty the supreme good: it was the soul of their political constitution; and, according to a great philosopher, it was by this attachment to liberty, that they distinguished themselves from the Asiatics, who were always slaves to their rulers (*i*). In the monarchies erected after the downfall of the Roman empire, liberty was connected with sovereignty, the nobility being a check against the excesses of prerogative. They were originally the only state of the realm; but the clergy growing rich and powerful, gained admittance into the public consultations; and in process of time the more wealthy cities and towns came to make a branch of the legislature. This compound of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, was in the middle ages almost the universal form of government in Europe. But in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it became, in most states, purely monarchical; the sovereigns finding means

(*i*) Aristoteles Polit. Lib. VII. cap. vii.

gradually to exclude the states from the government, and get all the power into their own hands. Accordingly, there are now in Europe the following unlimited monarchies: 1. Portugal. 2. Spain. 3. France. 4. Denmark. 5. Russia. 6. Prussia. 7. Sardinia. 8. The Two Sicilies. 9. The Pope is likewise unlimited in the Ecclesiastical State. 10. And the Grand Master of the order of St. John within the Isle of Malta. But the only despotic state in Europe is Turkey.

The European mixed states are, 1. Germany. 2. Great Britain. 3. Sweden. 4. Poland: and 5. Hungary; yet with considerable differences; for in Great Britain and Hungary, monarchy has the ascendant; in Sweden and Poland, aristocracy; and the Germanic constitution, in many things, resembles a body of united nations.

Among Europe's free states are four aristocracies: 1. Venice. 2. Genoa. 3. Lucca. 4. Ragusa: one aristo-democratical republic, San Marino: and two states of united people. 1. The United Netherlands. 2. The Swiss Cantons.

S E C T. XV.

Fundamen-
tal laws in
unlimited
monarchies.

All European kingdoms have their fundamental laws, which the sovereigns are bound to observe; even those states where the prerogative is unlimited, are not without such securities. For most, if not all the present absolute monarchies having been limited governments, some institutions were left standing at the change of form; and their authority gathering strength by prescription, they are held sacred as the bases of the state. Among these must indisputably be reckoned, 1. That the monarch cannot make any alteration in the established religion of the state, neither with regard to himself nor his subjects. 2. Likewise he is not to alter the legal succession to the throne, nor invest improper or disqualified persons with a pretension to it. 3. That he shall administer justice according to the laws; consequently, he cannot decide any cause arbitrarily. 4. He must maintain the hereditary rights and liberties of the people. And it being a maxim generally received in Christendom, that only the administration of the state, with proper rights and honours, is committed to the sovereign, and that it is by no means his property; another fundamental law consequential to this is, that the

the domain, or crown-lands shall not be alienated. Thus the sovereign is not allowed to parcel out the same or dispose of them at his will*.

S E C T. XVI.

Exclusive of these fundamental laws, an unlimited monarch has the government in his own hands; whereas in limited monarchies the case is very different, these having many more fundamental laws, by which the prince is, in the exercise of his sovereignty, bound in many cases to have the consent of the states of the realm. These cases, indeed, are not totally alike in all limited kingdoms: but in most they relate to, 1. Making laws. 2. Imposing taxes. 3. Entering into alliances, making peace and war. When a resolution is to be taken concerning one or other of these objects, it must undergo a deliberation in the assembly of the states. These in most countries consist of the nobility, the clergy, and the towns. In England the people are represented in par-

Particular
fundamen-
tal laws in
limited
monarchies.

* In the oath of the former kings of France was this clause:
"Superioritatem, jura et nobilitatis coronæ Franciæ inviolabiliter custodiam, et illa nec transportabo nec alienabo;" but since the coronation of Charles VIII. this has been omitted, being but a necessary consequence of the king's other promises. *Ceremonial de France dans le ceremonial diplomatique des cours de l'Europe*, par M. Rouffet, Tom. I. p. 234.

liament by the house of commons ; and in Sweden the free, or crown peasants, as they are called, have a seat in the diet. In Poland it is only the nobility and the higher clergy who compose the states ; and all resolutions in their diets must be unanimous, whereas in the other parts of Europe only a majority of votes suffices.

S E C T. XVII.

Nature of
the succe-
ssion.

In most European nations, no succession to the throne was at first absolutely hereditary ; for though the son usually succeeded the father, yet was not this by any positive hereditary right ; a previous consent of the states of the kingdom being necessary to the prince's receiving the homage of his people. The succession to the throne rested, therefore, on a mixed hereditary and elective right, as may be shewn in numberless instances among the old Germans, the Franks, the West-Goths, Anglo-Saxons, Danes, and Swedes (*k*). The constitution was the same in Poland under the kings of the Jagellon (*l*) family ; but hereditary right has, in process of time, found means to sup-

(*k*) Achenwall. Dissert. de Regnis mixtæ Successionis, §. iv. 14.

(*l*) Celeber. Lengnich jus Publ. Regni Poloni. Lib. II. c. ii. §. 4.

plant election out of all European states, except Germany and Poland, where election prevails, to the exclusion of hereditary right. The pope, and the doges of Venice and Genoa, are likewise elected.

S E C T. XVIII.

The succession in the European hereditary monarchies is either male or mixed. The former takes place in France, in most of the German Imperial fiefs, in Sweden and Prussia. The other hereditary kingdoms admit of the latter. Russia is so far different in this respect from all parts of the European world, that the sovereign has a right to appoint his successor.

Hereditary succession, either male or mixed.

Farther, natural children are debarred from the succession all over Europe; and though instances are not wanting of their being possessed of the throne in Portugal and Naples, yet this has only happened during intestine wars, by violent revolutions, and other singular junctures; and consequently, such cases are to be considered only as deviations from the general rule.

Illegitimate children excluded from the succession.

S E C T. XIX.

On the vacancy of a throne in the European elective kingdoms, the election can fall

Elective kingdoms have only kings.

fall on the males only; the fair sex being quite out of the question. This made it the more strange that queen Christina of Sweden should set up for the crown of Poland, on the resignation of John Casimir, as if she would lay aside her sex. (*m.*)

S E C T. XX.

Guardians
of the
realm in
elective
kingdoms.

On the demise of a monarch in the European elective kingdoms, the fundamental laws have appointed guardians, who conduct the administration. Those, in Germany, are the elector of Saxony, with the elector of Bavaria and the elector Palatine alternately. In Poland it is the Archbishop of Gnesna, as primate of the kingdom. In Rome, on the decease of a pope, the college of cardinals superintend affairs both of the church and state.

S E C T. XXI.

Regent in
the heredi-
tary monar-
chies.

When, by the decease of a monarch, the crown devolves on a minor, tutors or curators are appointed for his person, and regents for the administration; but both these high offices are more often united. In unlimited monarchies the sovereign makes a particular ordinance in his will, appointing

(*m.*) Memoires concernant Christine, Reine de Suede. (par Mr. Arkenholz.) Tom. IH. p. 338, &c.

the

the queen dowager both curatrix and regent; of which many instances occur in France, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden. In the want of a formal appointment, the laws of prescription turn the scale.

By these are determined the offices of the curator and administrator in limited monarchies. When neither of these decide the point, the right of nominating the curator and guardian unquestionably falls to the states of the realm.

S E C T. XXII.

The term of a king's minority is very different in the several states of Europe. In Germany, the emperor is of age on entering into his eighteenth year; the electors, on their compleating that year; the duke of Saxony, and princes of Anhalt, at the twenty-first; and the far greater part of the other princes of the empire at their twenty-fifth year, agreeably to the Roman law (*n*). The kings of France enter on their majority at their fourteenth year; those of Great Britain at the end of their eighteenth; those of Denmark at the beginning of the eighteenth; those of Sweden at the conclusion of their twenty-first year. In Spain and Portugal, the law is silent as to the majority; but the kings

Majority of
kings.

(*n*) Petr. de Ludewig de ætate legitima puberum et majorum, cap. v.

of those nations appear to have assumed the sovereignty at the beginning of their fourteenth year. In other European kingdoms this point is uncertain.

S E C T. XXIII.

Right of the
states of the
realm at the
extinction
of the royal
family.

On the failure of the reigning family, the states of the realm are empowered to elect a new king. The Germans having used this right on the extinction of the Carolingian male line, Germany has ever since remained an elective monarchy. The Swedes, likewise, on the failure of the royal male line in the year 1719, and 1743, availed themselves of the same right.

Accordingly, on a contest between the branches of the royal family, the states of the realm have decided the competition. This was the procedure of the French, when, on the death of their king Charles IV. both Philip de Valois and Edward III. king of England laid claim to the monarchy. Martin king of Arragon, being dead, nine judges were appointed, and those adjudged the crown to Ferdinand infant of Castile (*p*). The parliament of England in the year 1701, provided, that on the extinction of the Stuart line in the person of queen Anne,

(*p*) Mariana en la historia general de Espanna, Lib. XX.
c. 2, 3, 4.

the electoral house of Brunswick Lunenburgh should sit on the throne.

S E C T. XXIV.

It is not only by death that a monarch's ^{Resignation of monarchs.} sovereignty ceases, he may likewise divest himself of it by voluntary resignation, of which the European monarchies afford some signal instances. Lotharius the Roman emperor, the kings Alphonso IV. of Leon, Ramir II. of Arragon, Alphonso V. of Portugal, Charles V. Roman emperor and king of Spain, John Casimir king of Poland, Philip V. king of Spain, Victor Amadeus king of Sardinia, voluntarily descended from the throne, and embraced a monastic life, or lived in retirement. Some of these princes indeed, repented of their abdication; but only Alphonso V. and Philip V. had the good fortune to recover their crown.

S E C T. XXV.

There are still more instances of unhappy sovereigns violently extruded from the throne ^{Deposition of kings.} by a formal deposition. This was the fate of the emperors Henry IV. Adolphus of Nassau and Wenceslaus; of Childeric III. king of France; of Sancho II. and Alphonso VI. kings of Portugal; together with John Lackland, Edward II. Richard II.

II. Henry VI. Charles I. and James II. kings of England. In Sweden Magnus Smeck, Eric XIV. and Sigismund; in Denmark Christian II. and even in Russia John III. and Peter III. were deposed. Among all these instances of misfortune, that of Charles I. king of England is without a precedent: his subjects brought him to a trial as a malefactor, and put him to death by the hand of an executioner, before his own palace.

S E C T. XXVI.

Singular
good for-
tune of the
French and
Danish roy-
al families.

The most ancient among the sovereign families in Europe is that of France, having by an unparalleled series of prosperity held the throne near 800 years, in an uninterrupted male succession. From the same house are descended the kings of Portugal. It was for some time possessed of the sovereignty of Naples, and has given more than one king to Hungary and Poland. The royal family of Bourbon at present fill three of the European thrones, France, Spain, and Naples. The like good fortune has attended the illustrious house of Oldenburg: it is in possession of the two crowns of Denmark and Sweden, to which in time will be added that of Russia, in the person of a prince; and thus the sceptres of all the
three

three northern monarchies will be in its hands.

Germany has now the honour of giving sovereigns to the greater part of Europe; those of Great Britain, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, and Hungary, being of German extraction.

S E C T. XXVII.

The highest title of the European monarchs are, emperor and king. Antiently the imperial dignity was accounted above that of king, and the Orientals entertain that idea of it to this day; but in Europe other maxims have been adopted, and kings allow emperors no superiority over them.

Emperor
and king.

(q) The precedency among Christian potentates is indeed allowed to the Roman emperor, on account of his having been constantly in possession of that ceremonial; but no honorary distinction is paid to the emperor of Russia.

The European monarchs and other sovereign princes, France alone excepted, bear very prolix titles, not only of the countries which they actually possess, but likewise often of such as do not at all belong to them. This is done, 1. When they

(q) Moser's European Law of Nations in Peace, B. I. c. i. §. 5, 3. and c. iii. §. 3, 4.

have a right to the reversion or succession of certain lands, as the margraves of Brandenburg of the Franconian line to Prussia and Silesia. 2. When they lay claim to certain states, as France to Navarre; and 3. In remembrance of former rights or claims; as the kings of Sicily and the former dukes of Lorrain, now grand dukes of Tuscany, bear the title of kings of Jerusalem; and the dukes of Savoy that of kings of Cyprus*. A particular in the Portuguese title is, that trade and navigation make a part of it.

The arms of the European states are answerable to the titles they assume.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Titles of
the pope's
granting.

But besides these titles derived from countries, some kings bear others, conferred by the pope on themselves or their ancestors, in recompence of some eminent service done to the church or religion. Thus the king of France is termed the Most Christian; the king of Spain, the Catholic; the king of England, Defender of the Faith†; the kings of Portugal, the Most

* Both the dukes of Lorrain and Savoy used to place the title of these kingdoms after their ducal title; but since their becoming crowned heads, Jerusalem and Cyprus come immediately after their first royal title.

† The king of England alone bears this title in the first person, and among his other titles; the other kings commonly use theirs in the third person.

Faithful; and the king of Hungary, the Apostolic. In like manner were bestowed on the Swiss, the title of Defenders of the Church; and on John Casimir, king of Poland, that of Orthodox; but the two last are grown obsolete.

S E C T. XXIX.

The solemnities of an European king or emperor's accession to the throne are various. In most monarchies, as Germany, France, Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, Poland, Hungary, and Russia, they are anointed and crowned *. In Spain and Portugal kings are only proclaimed, and the states of the kingdom do homage to them. In Prussia and Sardinia, the accession of the new

Solemnities
on a prince's
accession to
the throne.

* The custom of kings being anointed and crowned by some eminent ecclesiastic is of Jewish origin; and it is observed, that the Eastern emperor Justin the Younger, successor to Justin the Great, was the first who had himself crowned by the patriarch of Constantinople. See Selden's Titles of Honours, P. I. c. viii. p. 174. Pepin king of France was crowned by Boniface, archbishop of Mentz, and anointed with consecrated oil; and this ceremony has ever since been constantly observed. Mezeray Abregé Chronol. de l'Hist. de France, Tom. I. p. 141. There was anciently a difference between the Imperial and Regal crowns, the former being close and the others open, till Francis I. king of France, made use of a close crown, in order to be on a footing with the emperor Charles V. in which he has been imitated by his successors and other princes. In Portugal, king Sebastian was the first who made use of a close crown; and the Portuguese historians found this very high as an act of great magnanimity.

king is signified to the subjects by public writs, requiring the usual homage.

S E C T. XXX.

Household.

The household of emperors and kings, and even of other princes, is very numerous and splendid; all courts having certain high officers, with each his appointed department, in which he is to see that every thing be done in the greatest order and decorum. The principal of these court-officers are the high-steward, the grand-marshal, the great-chamberlain, the great cup-bearer, and the master of the horse, &c. and in Catholic courts there is likewise the great-almoner. Under these are many inferior officers, who receive orders from them. Thus among the several officers at court, there is a gradual dependency; and this constitutes the regular transaction of all public business.

S E C T. XXXI.

Orders of
knighthood.

Orders of knightood are likewise accounted necessary to the pomp and dignity of a court; and accordingly obtain in most courts of Europe, which are in some measure

Stuck o'er with titles, and hung round with strings (r).

These orders are companies of kings, princes, and nobles, under a grand master, (who is

(r) Pope's Essay on Man, Epist. IV. v. 195.

always

always the king or sovereign of the country) bound to some particular duties *, and by way of distinction and pre-eminence wear certain marks of honour on their apparel; they are purely honorary, having no salary or income annexed to them, except the order of the Holy Ghost in France.

S E C T. XXXII.

Among the excellencies of Europe above the other three parts of the world, we must not omit the Christian religion, as obtaining in far the greater part. Mahometanism is limited to Turkey, Judaism is tolerated only in some countries, and of Paganism there are only a few miserable remains among the North-Laplanders and Samoiedes.

Christianity
the preva-
lent religion
in Europe.

S E C T. XXXIII.

Many have been the vicissitudes which Christianity has undergone. It no sooner began to spread, than Arianism arose in opposition to the orthodox or true believers.

Three prin-
cipal religi-
ous parties
in Europe.

* Article VIII. of the laws of the Order of the Elephant, runs thus: "Unusquisque qui in nobilissimum hunc ordinem admittitur, pro ordinis Domini Daniæ et Norvegiæ regis, juribus majestatis, gloria & regnis propugnet, verbi Dei ministros veramque evangelicam religionem defendat, pauperes viduas et orphanos protegat, &c." Vid. Statuta Ordinis Elephant. in Leibnit. Cod. J. G. Diplom. Mantiss. Part II. p. 63 Of the like import is Article II. of the laws of the Danebrog order, ib. p. 72.

These, through the jealousy of the bishops of Constantinople and Rome, and in the seventh century, became divided into two parties, the Greek and Latin churches. In the latter another division was occasioned in the sixteenth century by the Reformation, which gave birth to Lutheranism, Calvinism, and the Church of England. The three last are included under the common name of Protestants: and thus is Christianity in Europe divided into three sects, or religious parties, the Roman, the Greek, and the Protestant.

S E C T. XXXIV.

The Greek church.

The Greek is the established religion in Russia, and tolerated in Turkey, Hungary, Poland, and Transylvania. The spiritual head is the patriarch of Constantinople. But in the year 1587, he lost his authority over Russia; Czar Feodor Ivanovits instituting a patriarch of Moscow⁽¹⁾; so that, at present, it is only the Greek Christians within the Turkish dominions, who acknowledge the supremacy of the patriarch of Constantinople; and as to his dignity, that absolutely depends on the sultan's, or grand vizir's favour.

(1) G. T. Meieri Hist. Relig. cap. v. sect. 16, 17. p. 229, 230.

S E C T. XXXV.

The Roman Catholic religion prevails in Portugal, Spain, Italy, France, Hungary, Poland, the Austrian-Netherlands, part of Germany, Switzerland, and Transilvania. It is tolerated in the United Provinces, Denmark, Prussia, Russia, and Turkey; likewise in England and Ireland †, but not with the exercise of public worship.

Church of
Rome.

The head of the Roman Catholick church is the pope, or bishop of Rome, who, under the humble stile of "servant of God's servants," has usurped the exalted dignity of a divine vicegerent, and exercises a regal prerogative. He is the sole and supreme judge in matters of faith, and his jurisdiction comprehends all ecclesiastics, whose persons no civil power, under penalty of excommunication, can lay hands on (†). Farther, according to the principles of his politics, the church constitutes one large general state, of which the temporal states are but parts, and subject to his supremacy, which he strengthens in some European monarchies, making them in great measure tributary to him (u.)

† In these kingdoms, it is not tolerated by law; the most that can be said is, that the law is not put in execution against those who profess it. The Transl.

(†) C. 2. X. de foro comp. c. xxix. X. de Sent. excom.

(u) Ludewig. Jur. Feudor. cap. XI. Quæst. 2. p. 572, seq.

And though his loss in Europe by the Reformation be not inconsiderable, yet have the Spaniards and Portuguese by arms, and their missionaries by preaching, made such extensive conquests for him in the East and West-Indies, as have amply compensated for his European losses, his dominion being spread over the face of the whole earth.

S E C T. XXXVI.

Supports of
the Romish
church.

This spiritual sovereignty stands on such sure foundations, and is so well strengthened, that nothing seems of sufficient power to overthrow it. Its main pillars are the Inquisition, which, at first, was only a temporary tribunal (*x*), for suppressing the Waldenses and other heretics; but has since been made constant and perpetual in Spain, Portugal, Rome, &c. for the punishment and extirpation of all who depart from the doctrines of the Roman church (*y*). The numberless order of monks scattered over the whole world, are likewise very instrumental in supporting the Pope; but among them all, the Jesuits, being by a particular vow devoted to the see of Rome, have done him the best service. This order,

(*x*) *Memoires Historiques pour servir à l'Histoire des Inquisitions*, Livr. II. c. ii. 54.

(*y*) *Ibid.* c. v. p. 106, 107.

how-

however, after attaining to very extraordinary power and opulence, has lately suffered a violent shock, being suppressed in France, Spain, and Portugal.

S E C T. XXXVII.

The religious orders of knighthood were in former times a powerful support of the papal dominions, being by their original institution, bound to defend and propagate the Christian religion by the sword. The principal of these were the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, the Templars, and the Teutonic knights, who were instituted in Palestine, at the time of the Croisades. The first, who were called Knights of Malta, from the island of Malta, which Charles V. gave them for their residence, are possessed of very large estates in Spain, Portugal, France, and Germany; and their grand master is by the European potentates considered as an independent prince (z.) This order is the only one, which continues acting up to its capital vow, being continually at war with the Turks and African pirates. It is long since the prodigious wealth and licentiousness of the Knights Templars brought their order to a period, attended with many

Spiritual orders of knighthood created for the defence of religion.

(z) Helyot's History of the monastic and military orders.

shocking executions (*a*). The Teutonic Knights, who at first were called Mariani and Cruciferi, had conquered Prussia, which they lost in their wars with Poland, as they have by other accidents been deprived of many of their estates in Italy, Lorrain, and the United-Netherlands (*b*.) The head of this order is stiled the Teutonic Grand Master, and has a seat and vote at the German diets among the ecclesiastical princes. The Brothers of the Sword, or Sword-Bearers, who had made themselves masters of Livonia and Courland, and established Christianity there, have been involved in the loss of those countries (*c*). But the Spanish religious orders of St. Jago, Calatrava, Alcantara, Montesa, and those in Portugal of Christ and Avis, subsist to this very day.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Protestant-
ism.

The state of the Protestant religion is not in equal prosperity with the Roman Catholic. Instead of being properly united, it is split, and not without an acrimony equally

(*a*) Nic. Gurtleri Hist. Templarior. §. 4, 26, 43, 126, &c. Acta quædam ad condemnationem ordinis Templariorum pertinentia in Leibnitii. Cod. J. G. Diplom. Mantiss. II. No. V. VI. VII. p. 76, &c.

(*b*) Greg. Rivii (Ge. Burch Lauterback) Monast. Hist. Occid. cap. lxxvii. p. 117, &c.

(*c*) Conr. Sam. Schurzfleisch. Diss. de Ordine Ensisferorum, §. 5. & seq.

unbe-

unbecoming and detrimental, into three principal branches; Lutheranism, Calvinism, and the Church of England.

Lutheranism prevails in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Livonia, Courland, and part of Germany and Transilvania. It is tolerated in England, the United-Netherlands and Russia, and in Poland and Hungary; but in the two last countries, not without many oppressions.

Calvinism is established in the United-Netherlands, in Scotland, part of Germany, Switzerland, and Transilvania. It is tolerated in England, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Poland, and Hungary; but in the two last countries very much oppressed; and in France, where it has great numbers of secret votaries, it is under a downright persecution.

The Church of England, which is also called the High and Episcopal Church, is established in England and Ireland, and tolerated in Scotland. The English have likewise the free exercise of religion in many foreign parts, where they are settled on account of trade.

Since the Reformation, it has been a standing maxim in the papal policy, to weaken, and, if possible, suppress the Protestants. Such procedures have frequently given

Whether
the Roman
Catholic or
the Protestant
party
be the
strongest.

given rise to commotions and wars; so that religion makes a considerable article in the political state of Europe. For two opposite parties having sprung from it, the question is, Which of the two, Catholicism or Protestantism, is the stronger? or rather, Whether the latter has strength enough to defend itself against the former? On comparing the power on both sides, we find the emperor and the greater part of the German empire, the kings of France, Spain, Portugal, Poland, Hungary, Sardinia, Sicily, and the Pope, together with all Italy, and part of Switzerland, to be Catholics; and on the other hand, the Protestant side has the kings of Great Britain, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden, the United-Netherlands, with a part of Germany and Switzerland. Thus with regard to number and extent of countries, the former are by much the strongest. And another no small advantage is, their having a general head, which keeps them united, and directs their conduct to the advantage of the religion they profess; whereas among the latter there is little union, or at least not that union which should be, even on a political consideration. Notwithstanding these circumstances, a writer very intelligent in these matters affirms, that the protestant states, being very populous, and many

many of them likewise opulent and powerful, are a match for their adversaries (*d.*) This indeed seems to be confirmed by the last war, where the greatest potentates of the two religions were opposed to each other. Russia gave the former a great overpoize; for, on its relinquishing that party, the scale immediately turned to the other side.

S E C T. XXXIX.

It is a frequent question, Whether the Protestant or Roman Catholic religion be most beneficial to a nation? On considering that the Romish religion exempts the ecclesiastics from the jurisdiction of the magistracy, and makes them dependent on a foreign power, the consequence of which is a state within a state; that it subjects the state itself to such foreign power, and by excommunication and the deposition of rulers, which it has assumed, confounds all proper distinction; and farther, that it does violence to conscience and natural freedom; and by such a system, together with the celibacy of the clergy and the monastic life, hinders the peopling of countries (*e.*); and on the other hand, that the Protestant reli-

Whether the Catholic or Protestant religion be most for the national good.

(*d.*) See the Present State of Europe, by Dr. Campbell, c. ii.

(*e.*) Ibid.

gion teaches and practises the contrary of such abuses ; all this, I say, considered, the question decides itself.

S E C T. XL.

State of the
Sciences in
Europe.

Most countries of Europe, and particularly the northern, owe the introduction of Sciences to the Christian religion. They are at present spread throughout all our part of the world where Christianity prevails ; but their prosperity is not in all countries alike. For among the higher Sciences, as they are termed, scholastic philosophy and divinity are still predominant in the Roman Catholic countries, through the restraint laid on freedom of thinking and writing ; whereas both these studies are almost exploded every where among the protestants.

Civilians in most European countries used formerly to make the explanation of the Roman and papal laws their chief business ; but of late they have applied themselves to the national laws and the nobler parts of jurisprudence, the law of nature and of nations, and the public and municipal system of Laws *.

* Vattel's Law of Nations, B. I. ch. xii. §. 143, 157.

Physic was first brought into Spain by the Arabs, who blended astrology with it *; and from Spain it was farther propagated over Europe. It is at present greatly improved, which is owing to the many modern discoveries made in natural philosophy, botany, chemistry, and anatomy.

S E C T. XLI.

On the overthrow of the western Roman empire by the irruption of foreign nations, Of polite literature in particular. polite literature and the fine arts became totally lost amidst the ignorance and barbarism, with which Italy and the other Roman provinces were overwhelmed. The subsequent times afford nothing but very rude productions of history and poetry. This vitiated and ignorant period invented a new kind of composition, in the scheme and ground-work not unlike Epic poems, full of love-adventures and feats of arms; and heightened, by way of embellishment, with the most incredible and absurd circumstances. These writings were called Ro- Origin of Romances.

* The antient Arabian and Jewish physicians used, in dangerous cases, to call in the stars to the help of their art; of which the Spanish histories give a very remarkable instance of king John II. of Arragon, in the operation which he underwent for a cataract. Mariana's History of Spain, Lib. XXIII. c. xii.

mances;

mances * ; and for a long time prevailed, to the great injury of taste in Epic poetry ; of which Ariosto, in his Orlando Furioso, together with many other Italians, are famous instances. It is, however, the honour of Italy to have first restored Literature according to the models of the Greeks and Romans. So good an example was gradually followed by the other European nations ; so that, at present, they all afford men of parts, and ingenious productions in every country.

The Italians likewise formed the general taste in Music ; most countries in Europe having adopted their system.

S E C T. XLII.

Universities.

On the restoration of learning, many universities and inferior schools were erected in all European countries : the number only of the former amounts to an

* Romances, which, at first, were short poems, the celebrated Huet in his *Traité de l'Origine des Romans*, p. 140, 141. has shewn to derive their original from Provence ; and not composed in Latin as works of erudition, but in the common Provençal tongue. This was a compound of several languages, in which, however, the Latin predominated, and was called Romance, as the common Spanish is at present : and thus Romance comes to be the general appellation for such poems and books which the Spaniards call Romances, the Italians Romanzi, and the French Romans. See Huet. P. 134, 135.

hundred and thirty (*f*). Germany, France, Spain, and Italy, have the most. They differ greatly in their constitution, especially the Protestant and Roman Catholic : the former enjoying a much greater liberty of speaking and writing, carried science to a higher degree of improvement than the latter.

S E C T. XLIII.

In every part of Europe, except Poland, there are, besides universities, academies, and scientific societies, which have enriched mathematics, natural philosophy, physic, and other sciences, with many new discoveries, and thus greatly enlarged the boundaries of the learned world ; as the Memoirs published by them gloriously prove. Some, as the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and others in France ; those of Petersburg and Berlin, together with the Royal Society at Gottingen ; annually propose certain questions to all the learned in Europe ; and the best answer is honoured with a prize, which is usually a gold medal of no small value.

Academies
and socie-
ties of sci-
ences.

(*f*) Many curious particulars relating to Universities are to be found in Pfeffingeri Corp. Jur. Publ. Tom. IV. Lib. iv. Tit. x. p. 709, 715. with a list of the principal academies in Europe, p. 716, 729.

S E C T. XLIV.

Painting, sculpture, and architecture, which the Greeks and Romans carried to great perfection, sunk with the Western empire; and the middle ages are monuments of the vicious taste which then prevailed in those arts. The Italians again led the way to a happy imitation of the antients, and the revival of all the exquisiteness of their performances; and long have they maintained their superiority in those arts, which, to this day, are more in vogue among them than in other countries. Italy and France have produced the best masters in sculpture; Italy, France, and England, have had their eminent geniuses in architecture; and many Germans, Dutch, and Flemings, have made a figure among the celebrated painters.

The last mentioned art is divided into three schools, or into a threefold taste and stile in painting; namely, the Italian, Flemish (g), and French. The antients used only water-colours, till John Von Brugge, or, as he is called by others, John Von Eyck, found out the art of painting in oil, (h) to

(g) *Memoires de Trevoux*, Juin 1762. p. 228.

(h) *Ibid.* p. 226.

which,

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

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which, however, the English lay claim (i). Among the fine arts may likewise be reckoned engraving, which is almost of the same date as printing, tho' cutting figures in wood was practised long before (k).

For the improvement of painting, sculpture, and architecture, particular academies have been erected in Italy and France, and lately in Spain.

S E C T. XLV.

The general advancement of the sciences, is, among other circumstances, to be attributed to printing, and its consequence bookselling. This is a very great convenience to the learned, affording them an easy method of publishing their works and to advantage.

Printing
and book-
selling.

Printing and bookselling have likewise promoted the founding of large public libraries, which, in reality, are the treasures of the Republic of Letters, where the access to them is open. The Vatican library at Rome, that of the French king at Paris, and that of the emperor at Vienna,

Libraries,

(i) Anecdotes of Painting in England, collected by George Vertue, and published by Mr. Horace Walpole, Vol. I. c. 2.

(k) Dissertation sur l'Origine et les Progrès de l'Art de graver en Bois, par Mr. Fournier le Jeune, à Paris, 1758. VIII. See Journal des Sçavans, May 1748. p. 281, &c.

are accounted the largest and most valuable in Europe (*l*).

Monthly
Writings.

The literary monthly journals make known what books are published, together with their contents; and thus must be classed among the beneficial inventions, which contribute both to the improvement of knowledge, and the conveniency of the learned *.

S E C T. XLVI.

The Ro-
man and
canon law.

Though all states in Europe have their own laws, yet since the thirteenth century, the Roman law has been introduced into many; and in cases where the laws of the land are not decisive, it is the standard of justice in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Germany, and the Low Countries (*m*.) Next to the Roman law, the papal has likewise, as celebrated for equity, been adopted almost over all Europe, and particularly in judicial proceedings. In spiritual and ecclesiastical causes it obtains even in many Protestant countries (*n*.) These foreign laws,

(*l*) Keyfler's Travels, Letter LXXXII. Our author seems to have forgot the Bodleian at Oxford. T.

* The inventor of these periodical pieces was Dennis Sallo, who began with the Journal des Sçavans, 1664. See Raynal. Anecdotes Littéraires, Art. Sallo.

(*m*) Arthur Duck de Usu et Authoritate Juris Civilis Romanor. in Dominiis principum Christianor. Lib. II. c. 9—12.

(*n*) Id. Lib. I. c. 7.

how-

however, are productive of great inconveniencies, both on account of the language in which they are written, and the labour and time in learning them, not to mention their lengthening of suits; so that it is much to be wished they were totally laid aside, and the common laws amended, as Frederic II. king of Prussia has done, to the great happiness of his dominions.

S E C T. XLVII.

Several customs gradually arose among the Christian nations in Europe, which, by tacit consent, were admitted as the rule of their behaviour in war and peace; and in consequence of which, more moderation and humanity was observed in the former, and in the latter more civility and decorum, than among the people of the other parts of the world. These usages collectively are called the European law of nations, a happy consequence of the propagation of the Christian religion and the sciences. The reality of this law of nations is unquestionable, but this noble part of jurisprudence has hitherto had but little culture bestowed on it*.

Law of nations in Europe.

* The newest and most useful works on this subject are Counsellor Moser's Maxims of the Law of Nations in Time of Peace; Maxims of the European Law of Nations in War; and Mr. Ackenwall's *Primæ Lineæ Juris Gentium Practici*.

Great mili-
tary force
in Europe.

Europe, since the beginning of the sixteenth century, has been harrassed with long and expensive wars; so that this period affords but few years of general peace †. This has occasioned standing armies. Those of Lewis XIV. far exceeded all that had been seen before; and this laid the other states under a necessity of augmenting theirs: hence the military establishment of Europe is now increased to the enormous number of a million and a half, ‡ and this exclusive of the sea-forces.

† From the year 1600 to 1756, Europe has been the scene of forty considerable wars; whereas during the same space of time only three have happened in Asia. Voltaire's History of the War of 1741.

‡ According to M. Busching's Introduction, &c. the European regular forces in time of peace are as follow:

The Ottoman Port	—	300,000
Russia	—	250,000
The House of Austria	—	200,000
France	—	160,000
King of Prussia	—	146,000
The other States of Germany	—	130,000
Spain	—	70,000
Denmark	—	59,000
Sweden	—	48,000
United Netherlands	—	40,000
Great Britain	—	30,000
The King of the Two Sicilies	—	30,000
Venice	—	28,000
Poland	—	24,000
King of Sardinia	—	15,000
The other Italian States	—	15,000
Portugal	—	14,000
Total		1,559,000

By this list above a hundredth part of the inhabitants of Europe are soldiers.

The

The many wars, and formidable armies, have, however, produced great improvements in the art of war and military functions. These must principally be ascribed to French invention, as clearly appears from the many French words in gunnery and military architecture: even the very titles of the military officers, from the highest to the lowest, are French.

The strength of a government chiefly shewing itself in war, the proportion of European states relatively to their actual force, is to be judged of by its military figure. Baron Bielfeld divides them into four classes. The first are, those which with a large land and naval force, have also a sufficiency of money; and these can maintain a war on their own bottom, without any foreign assistance or alliance. These, which he terms states of the first magnitude, are only France and Great Britain. To the second class belong those states which in themselves are strong, but without all the beforementioned advantages; and in their wars, especially if unfortunate and of any length, stand in need of alliances and pecuniary succours: such are the house of Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Spain. The third class is composed of states which are not able to engage in a war, but as parties in a very powerful alliance, and for a

subsidy furnish auxiliaries, whom they cannot maintain in time of peace; in fine, whose territories are too small, and deficient in revenues or inhabitants. Among these he classes Portugal, Sardinia, Sweden, Denmark *, Sicily and the United Provinces. In these three classes are comprehended the great European powers. In the fourth, he places all the other states in Europe which, of themselves, are utterly incapable of undertaking any thing, or have no immediate share in the great transactions; and these he calls the Petty States (o.)

S E C T. XLVIII.

Maritime
powers in
Europe.

Most European states confining on the sea, this situation, and the trade and navigation arising from it, have made them maritime powers: these are Portugal, Spain, France, Great Britain, the United Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, the Port, Venice, Genoa, and the Knights of Malta; but the precedency so far belongs to Great Britain, that its present navy is respected by all-Europe. In the last century, that of the Dutch came pretty near it; and

* Denmark, however, I should be for ranking in the second class, on account of its great trade and marine.

(o) Institutions Politiques, par M. le Baron de Bielfeld. Tom. II. ch. iv. §. 14.

never

never were larger fleets seen than in the wars between those two powerful rivals. On this account it is, that they are, by way of preference, termed the Maritime Powers; but the latter is at present so small, as scarce to be compared with the former.

The Dutch shipping employed in trade is very considerable; and falls very little, if any thing, short of that of Great Britain. These two states have more merchant-ships at sea, than all the rest of Europe put together*.

In the beginning of this century, Europe saw a new maritime power arise in Russia. Besides, in most states of our part of the world, both commerce and the marine are

* See Campbell's Present State of Europe, chap. ii. p. 20, 21, where the author compares the mercantile shipping of the European nations, as it stood at the breaking out of the war for the Austrian succession. On dividing it, says he, into twenty parts,

Great Britain has	—	—	6
The United Provinces	—	—	6
The subjects of the Northern Crowns	—	—	1
The trading towns in Germany and the	}	—	1
Austrian-Netherlands			
France	—	—	2
Spain and Portugal	—	—	2
Italy, and the rest of Europe	—	—	1
			20

But since that time, many have been the alterations in the European commerce and marine; and Great Britain's share must at present be rather greater, such large countries in North America having been ceded to it by France and Spain at the peace of Paris, in 1763.

greatly increased; a circumstance by which ship-building has received considerable improvements, though the palm in this art is generally given to the English (*p*).

S E C T. XLIX.

Inconveni-
ency of the
different
standards of
the Europe-
an coinage.

Money being the sinew of war, the great and general wars so frequent in Europe, as likewise the uses of commerce, must occasion a vast circulation of it. Great would be the conveniency to all nations, could one general standard be agreed on for the European coins: but, like the proportion between gold and silver*, this differs considerably in all countries, which causes many inconveniencies in trade, and particularly in exchange of money. The most moneyed country in our part of the world is Holland, which accordingly, in the business of exchange, gives laws to other nations (*q*).

(*p*) Institutions Politiques, par M. le Baron de Bielfeld. Tom. I. ch. xv. §. 20.

* The proportion between gold and silver is,

In Spain, about	—	—	1—16
Germany and Swisserland	—	—	1—15
The king of Sardinia's dominions	—	—	1—14 $\frac{4}{5}$
Holland	—	—	1—14 $\frac{2}{3}$
England	—	—	1—14 $\frac{3}{4}$
France	—	—	1—14 $\frac{9}{10}$

(*q*) Spirit of Laws, Book XXII. ch. x.

S E C T. L.

The European countries being not equally rich, and the difference in their extent and inward constitution being likewise considerable, there must of course be a great disparity in their revenues. Those of France exceed the rest; and there being few states in Europe with large crown-lands, or demesnes, their revenues must arise from taxes and imposts on the subject. These are highest in France, Spain, and Holland.

Revenues
of the Eu-
ropean na-
tions very
different.

S E C T. LI.

The large armies continually kept on foot in Europe, are a very chargeable article, and run away with the greater part of the public revenue; so that most European states, having no stock of money in hand, are under a necessity in time of war, not only to impose new taxes, or raise the former, but likewise to take up large sums on loans. And hence it is that many of the most respectable powers, as France, Great Britain, Spain, Sweden, and the United Netherlands, are encumbered with enormous debts.

Debts of
some Euro-
pean states.

S E C T.

S E C T. LH.

Alterations
and present
state of the
European
commerce.

Next to the consideration of the military state, comes that of trade, and especially the maritime trade, carried on by the present European powers, which has undergone great changes. The overthrow of the western Roman empire drew likewise after it the total ruin of the commerce carried on in the Mediterranean and the Archipelago, between the Roman provinces. Venice and Genoa, in the beginning but small republics, in some measure restored it, and conducted a trade, which extended itself through the Archipelago into the Black-Sea, and even farther. But this likewise was soon brought to an end, by the irruptions of the Tartars and Turks. After this misfortune, the chief place of resort for the Venetian shipping was Alexandria in Egypt; from whence they fetched spices, silks, and other East-India goods, which they distributed over Europe with very considerable profit.

In the twelfth century, some towns in the north of Germany entered into a commercial partnership, and alliance for their mutual defence, which was called the Hanse; and the allied towns were distinguished by the denomination of Hans-Towns. They not only traded in the Baltic,

tic, but likewise to the Low-Countries, England, France, and Spain ; and such was the strength of their confederacy, that for some time it was accounted one of the great northern maritime powers.

Thus the Venetians and the Hans-Towns were in possession of the best part of the trade of Europe, and continued in it till the end of the fifteenth century, when a great change happened to the prejudice of both. For about this time it was that the Spaniards discovered the New World, and brought from thence many commodities till then quite unknown in Europe, besides prodigious quantities of gold and silver ; and the Portuguese also sailing to the East-Indies, became masters of the spice-trade, and thus totally diverted that branch of the Venetian commerce. The Low-Countries, famous for woollen and linen manufactures, likewise embarked in a trade with Spain and Portugal ; which was afterwards carried on with still greater success, when they came under the Spanish government. The commodities which they purchased in those countries, they carried up the Baltic, and this gave the first blow to the Asiatic trade ; and not long after, the alliance itself fell to pieces.

The

The Portuguese, who were become the most opulent nation in Europe by their East-India commerce, were dispossessed of it during their union with Spain. The Dutch, in the long war with that crown, making themselves masters of the best Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, thereby got the chief part of the spice-trade into their hands, and still continue in possession of it.

The English, who hitherto had but little concerned themselves about foreign commerce, took it in hand in the reign of queen Elizabeth; and under Lewis XIV. the French, from emulation, imitated their example; to which the celebrated Colbert animated them by the most prudent regulations.

In the present century, the northern states have at length engaged in naval commerce with great industry, and the German trading cities have considerably enlarged it. The English and Dutch mercantile shipping continue to exceed those of the rest of Europe.

The trade in home manufactures, being much more beneficial and profitable than any other, great numbers at present begin to be erected in all countries.

S E C T. LIII.

The European nations carry on a considerable trade with one another; and for its consolidation and improvement, several have entered into commercial treaties, by which one state agrees to allow certain advantages to the subjects of another, particularly in tolls and duties. It is likewise stipulated in these treaties, in what manner the maritime trade shall be carried on in time of war, with the enemies of one or the other party; and what goods shall be permitted or prohibited. It appears, that with regard to permitted goods, the property of the goods was considered in the former treaties of commerce; but in the latter, the property of the ship is the point; so that according to the former, the goods of a friend in an enemy's ship were free, and the goods of an enemy in a friend's ship were forfeited; whereas by the latter a friend's ship saves the goods of an enemy, and the ship of an enemy subjects a friend's goods to confiscation.

Home-
trade of the
Europeans.

The Europeans likewise carry on a vast trade to the other three parts of the world, Asia, Africa, and America. From Asia †

To the
other parts
of the
world.

† The Asiatic trade includes, 1. a part of the Levant trade; 2. The East-India trade; and 3. The trade to China. By

they fetch spices and drugs, likewise gold and gems, raw silk and cotton, camels hair and mohair; together with several manufactures, as silk and woollen stuffs, china, and all kinds of lacquered ware.

The African commodities are oil, cotton, ivory, gold in ingots and gold dust, gums, skins, copper, leather, almonds, negroes, wine, wheat, wool, sugar.

Coffee.

America furnishes timber, cotton, cacao, coffee, cochineal, gems, iron, logwood, fish, gold, hides, indigo, ginger, copper, firs, pearls, pimento, or brazil-pepper, quinquina, rice, sarsaparilla, silver, tobacco, vanillas, Vigogna wool, wax, sugar (*r*).

The American trade is confined to those European nations who have colonies in that

the Levant, the Italians mean all the countries lying east of them from Dalmatia to the river Euphrates in Asia, and to the river Nile in Africa, including likewise the islands in those quarters. The French likewise comprehend in it Italy, and all the northern coast of Africa; and the English and Dutch give this appellation, in the most extensive sense, to all the countries lying in the Mediterranean. Busching's Introduction, §. 96. The Levant trade is subject to many inconveniencies from the African corsairs; so that most nations have entered into a treaty with them, and even paid them a kind of tribute under the disgraceful name of presents. The Spaniards and Portuguese, by reason of their situation, might effectually reap great advantages from such an agreement; but their extreme delicacy in point of honour and religion, will not listen to such an accommodation. East-India comprehends all that vast part of Asia reaching from Persia eastward to China, and northward to Great Tartary; likewise all the islands in the Indian-Sea lying within that space.

(*r*) Busching's Introduction, §. 94, 95, 97.

part,

part, importing thither and to Africa their manufactures and fabricks. But little is done this way in the East-Indies and China, that trade requiring ready money; and particularly the Chinese will be paid for their goods in silver, of which they have always shewn themselves fond (s).

S E C T. LIV.

The East-India and China trade is, on that account, very detrimental to Europe in general, by the annual loss of some millions of gold and silver *. The amazing quantity of silver which America sends over for European goods, is chiefly consumed in this trade; and thus what we receive from the West-Indies, is for the most part swallowed up by the East-Indies and China. The vast gain of this trade † continues enlarging it to a most excessive degree; and

Detriment
of the East-
India trade
to Europe.

(s) Maffei Hist. Ind. Lib. VI. p. 249.

* In the year 1753 and 1754, the English East-India Company exported 5,318,580 ounces of silver, and 52,145 ounces of gold. London Evening Post, 1756. N^o. 4396. The Danish East-India Company from the year 1731 to 1745, sent over thirty-seven tons of gold in ready money, and only three tons of gold in goods, which annually make a difference of above 260,000 Danish dollars. If to these we add the ready money used by the Dutch, French, Portuguese, Swedes, and the Embden Company, it may be computed that at least seven or eight millions go yearly out of Europe to the East-Indies and China.

† The Danish East-India Company has, in return for the abovementioned thirty-seven tons of gold in cash, and three

in all appearance, things will continue going on at the like rate till Europe becomes totally exhausted and impoverished, which a celebrated late writer confidently predicts (*t*). Others again, see nothing so very pernicious in this trade, or the exportation of part of our nobler metals which it occasions; otherwise they would increase too much, and consequently lose of their value. They are, however, and very justly, for limiting the East-India and Chinese trade to tea, coffee, spices, and drugs, with a total exclusion of porcelane, silk, and cotton-stuffs, and other India manufactures (*u*). The East-India and Chinese trade requiring very large sums, is carried on by companies erected for that purpose in several countries; as Portugal, France, England, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and in East-Friesland, at Emden. Among them all, that of Holland is the most considerable and wealthy, and next to that the English Company.

in manufactures, brought back East-India and China goods to the amount of seventy-four tons of gold; sixty of which were sold to foreigners, and thirteen consumed at home. Patriotiske Tankar. om Manufactur. &c.

(*t*) Mr. de Real dans la Science du Gouvernement, Prem. Partie, Tom. I. p. 155.

(*u*) Mr. de Bielsfeld Instit. Polit. Tom. VIII. ch. xiii. §. 20.

S E C T. LV.

Cardinal Alberoni, if the will attributed to him be really his, and not a work of the editor's, the famous Maubert, has drawn up a project for procuring the whole East and West-India trade, and consequently the dominion of the sea, to the house of Bourbon (y). On the other hand, some French writers charge the English with affecting such dominion, and an universal exclusive trade (z).

Cardinal Alberoni's plan for procuring the East and West-India trade to the house of Bourbon.

S E C T. LVI.

Among the European inventions for the improvement of commerce, must be reckoned the money-trade, which is carried on by bills of exchange and public banks; as at Venice, Amsterdam, Nuremberg, Hamburg, London, Genoa, Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Dantzick. The four former are banks of exchange; the constitution of the others is something different, being likewise loan banks.

Banks of Europe.

For the increase of naval trade, some countries have set up Free-ports, that is,

(x) L'Espion ou le faux Baron de Maubert, p. 36.

(y) Voyez Le Testament Politique du Cardinal Jules Alberoni, ch. vi. p. 96. et suiv.

(z) Mr. de Real Science du Gouvernement, Six. Partie, p. 448, 449. Desormeaux dans l'Abregé Chronol. de l'Hist. d'Espagne, Tom. V. p. 348, 531.

such where nothing, or a very small matter is demanded of ships and goods coming thither; and all nations indiscriminately are allowed to trade. Such free-ports are Leghorn, Trieste, Ancona, and Emden.

S E C T. LVII.

Advantage
of posts.

Trade has given rise to a great intercourse between all European nations; and this is carried on by journies and epistolary correspondence, for both which nothing could be better contrived than posts. These seem to have first obtained in France*, and the manifest benefits of such a regulation soon brought them into use all over Europe.

Origin of
News-pa-
pers.

Accounts of what is doing in foreign countries being easily had by means of posts, this gave rise to weekly News-papers, which are likewise a French invention †.

S E C T. XLVIII.

Domestic
state inter-
est of the
European
powers.

The present politics and administration of the European monarchies and govern-

* Horse-posts were first instituted by an edict of Lewis XI. in 1464. *Memoires de Comines*, Liv. V. c. 10. Henault dans l'Abregé Chronol. de Hist. de France, Tom. I. p. 385. It was an impatience to know what was doing in the kingdom, which put him on this expedient.

† The inventor was Theophrastus Renaudot, a physician of Paris, who, on laying his scheme before cardinal Richlieu in 1631, had a patent given him. *Anecdotes Littéraires*, Vol. II. p. 275. In Portugal the first news-papers were printed in 1715, under the auspices of Mascarenhas, an ecclesiastic. *Imperiale Magazine*, Feb. 1760.

ments,

ments, is very different from the more ancient. Formerly a true knowledge was wanting of the means for making a state populous, powerful, and respectable. At present all allow that so important an end is chiefly attained by a large trade, manufactures, arts, and sciences; accordingly our princes and statesmen have nothing more at heart than the advancement of those objects. And herein consists the main part of the domestic state-interest of the European powers.

Their relation and conduct towards each other has of late been no less altered. A ^{Foreign state-interest.} state formerly little concerned itself about what passed in another, and with the more remote had no manner of connection or correspondence. If ever an ambassador happened to be sent, it was only on some particular business, and on bringing it to an issue, he returned home; but the power of the house of Austria and Spain, in the sixteenth century, awakened the attention of all Europe. Francis I. united himself against Charles V. with very distant powers, as Turkey, Denmark, and Sweden; and this alliance was the more taken notice of, as being the first between France and the northern crowns. It was then likewise, that ^{Balance of Europe.} it became a general maxim in European politics,

Conse-
quences of
it.

litics, that an over-grown power was dangerous to the liberty and independency of other states; and that its attempts to oppress others, and thereby aggrandize itself still more, ought to be opposed with united forces. This is what constitutes the balance of power, so much talked of. The preservation of it against the preponderating power of Spain, and since of France, having occasioned so many alliances and wars, which produced many and long-winded negotiations betwixt the other powers of Europe, it became a custom, which has been continued ever since, to keep envoys in ordinary at foreign courts; by whose means one court gets speedy intelligence of what passes in another, and frequently comes at its most interesting secrets. Such is the rise of that perpetual intercourse and connection between the European states; so that all are linked together, and any slight motion at one end of our part of the world, immediately spreads to the other: if the movement be such as may cause a considerable alteration in the general state of Europe, not only the neighbouring powers, but likewise those at a distance, take part in it, and by negotiations, or openly assisting one or the other side, endeavour to bring about an accommodation.

This

This is well known to be an effect, which the balance has never failed producing.

This balance, however, has suffered some important changes. Whilst Spain was the greatest power in our part of the world, France could always depend on allies against that crown; but after France had acquired that envied superiority, all potentates united in support of Spain against the French; and even they who had justly been its most violent enemies, the Dutch, became its most strenuous defenders. At length those two kingdoms, which, for almost two hundred years, had generally been in arms against each other, became united by the accession of a prince of the house of Bourbon to the throne of Spain. Great Britain, which, since the Revolution, interfered more than usual in the preservation of the balance, to this united power opposed the house of Austria, in conjunction with the United Netherlands; and on the demise of Charles VI. saved it from the total ruin which otherwise seemed unavoidable. But the year 1756 produced a strange alteration in the balance and system of Europe; the house of Austria and France entering into a close alliance. This alliance, in which are

Alterations
in the ba-
lance.

also included the other branches of the house of Bourbon in Spain and Italy, at present constitutes one of the two principal parties in Europe; the other being Great Britain and its allies. Whether, in this situation of affairs, the balance of Europe can be preserved, time will shew.

Particular
balance in
the North,
Germany,
and Italy.

Besides this general, there are likewise three particular balances in Europe; the preservation of which is of great moment; as, should it be weakened or destroyed, the bad effects will be sensibly felt by the whole. The first is in the North, where the Russian power is certainly formidable. The second is in Germany, which consists in the two potent houses of Austria and Brandenburg remaining in their present condition. The third is in Italy, where the king of Sardinia used to hold the scale between the houses of Austria and Bourbon (1); but by the union of those two powers, both his situation and the balance of Italy have but an unfavourable aspect.

S E C T. LIX.

Conventions
between
European
powers.

From the continual negotiations, and the many alliances and wars of the European

(1) See Campbell's Present State of Europe, chap. ii. p. 26, 27.

states,

states, have proceeded a multitude of treaties and conventions between them, containing the reciprocal rights and obligations. These conventions, and the history of the present and the two last centuries, are essentially necessary to those, whose station requires a solid knowledge of the present state of Europe.

THE

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE

States have proceeded a number of treaties and conventions between them, containing the reciprocal rights and obligations. These conventions, and the history of the present and the two last centuries, are essentially necessary to those whose station requires a solid knowledge of the present state of Europe.

The second part of the work is a history of the present state of Europe, and the two last centuries, are essentially necessary to those whose station requires a solid knowledge of the present state of Europe.

T H E

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. II.
OF SPAIN,

SPAIN, in the most ancient times, was Name. called Iberia, and since that Hispania, which Anniius of Viterbo derives from Hispanus, a king, and grandson to Hercules (a). But others affirm, that the Phœnicians gave that part of Spain which was known to them, the appellation * of Sphanija, or Spanija (b); from whence has been formed

(a) Annii Liber de primis temporibus et XXIV. Regibus Hispaniæ, cap. xiii. in Berosi Antiquitatibus ab eo editis, p. 299. &c. Justinus, Lib. XXIV. cap. 1. says; "Hanc (Hispaniam) veteres ab Ibero amne Iberiam, postea ad Hispano Hispaniam cognominaverunt." This Hispanus Anniius has made a king, and the tenth of the four and twenty, who, according to his account, had reigned over all Spain.

(b) Sam. Bochart in Phaleg. Lib. III. cap. vii. p. 190. & in Canaan, Lib. I. cap. xxxv. p. 706. Sphanija, or Spanija, is said to be derived from the Phœnician word Saphan, which signifies a rabbit: Spain in former times, according to many writers, producing multitudes of those creatures.

Spa-

Spania†; and lastly Hispania; which has continued to be the name of the country, though several times conquered by foreign nations.

S E C T. II.

Situation
and limits.

It lies between the 36th and 44th degree of north latitude; and the 9th and 21st of longitude from the meridian of Ferro. Eastward, it is bounded by the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France; northward, by the Atlantic-ocean, and the Bay of Biscay; westward, it confines on the Atlantic-ocean and Portugal; and southward, on the Atlantic and Mediterranean. Thus Spain and Portugal form a peninsula.

S E C T. III.

Tempera-
ture and air.

The air in Spain is warm, pure, and dry, except in Catalonia and Gallicia, where it is damp; and in the northern provinces, and among the hills, very cold; whilst up the country, and in the southern provinces, the heat in summer is insupportable, with scarce a breeze to cool it; and the winters so mild, that the fields are covered with

† The manuscripts of many ancient Greek and Latin writers have Spania, instead of Hispania. Salmas. ad Jul. Capitolin. in M. Anton. Philosoph. cap. i.

flowers

flowers and herbage (*c*). The climate of Spain is highly praised by the ancients (*d*); and the Spaniards themselves, travelling but little, are so conceited of the beauty and delightfulness of their country, that they cry it up above all others on the surface of the globe (*e*).

S E C T. IV.

But this beauty, and, at the same time, ^{Hills,} the fertility of Spain, are much abated, by the many high and craggy mountains with which it is overspread. For, from the Pyrenees, which are eighty-five French leagues in length, and in some places forty broad, three vast arms spread themselves thro' the whole country; one reaching to the Mediterranean near Tortosa, the second to the streights of Gibraltar, and the third to Cape Finisterre in the ocean (*f*).

S E C T. V.

Spain is watered by 150 rivers large and ^{Rivers,} small, the principal of which are the Ebro, the Guadalquivir, the Guadiana, the Tagus, the Duero, and Minho. These rivers, how-

(*c*) Vayrac dans l'Etat present de l'Espagne, Tom. I. p. 53, 54.

(*d*) Justinus Lib. XLIV. cap. i. et Latinus Pacat. in Panegyrico Theodos. Aug. dicto. cap. iv. §. 2.

(*e*) Vayrac, Tom. i. p. 41.

(*f*) Ibid. Tom. I. p. 55, 56.

ever, can hardly be called navigable, on account of the many rocks, sand-banks, and water-falls (g.)

S E C T. VI.

Fruitfulness.

In the animal kingdom.

Spain was greatly celebrated among the ancients for its fruitfulness (b); but this has of late very much declined, though more by the fault of the inhabitants, than of nature. The Spanish horses were highly valued by the Romans, and by reason of their beauty and swiftness were used for parade, and the course (i.) They are in the like esteem at present; but mules being come into great vogue, the Spaniards do not breed such numbers of horses as formerly †.

(g) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 58, 60, 62.

(b) Pompon. Mela de Situ Orbis, L. II. c. vi. says of Spain, "It produces so many men and horses, so abounds in iron, lead, copper, silver, and gold, that though for want of water, it is in some parts, as it were, worn out and unlike itself; yet it yields flax, and esparto, a kind of rush." C. Jul. Solinus in Polyhist. c. xxvi. speaks of Spanish fertility with the like encomiums. Claudian. in Laud. Serenæ. gives this account of Spain,

Dives equis, frugum facilis, pretiosa metallis.

(i) Symmach. Lib. IV. Epist. 61. et Lib. IX. Epist. 12.

† It is only noblemen of the highest rank who are allowed to drive in Madrid with four mules. Voyage d'Espagne, Tom. II. Lett. viii. p. 120. Count Konigseck, on his coming to Spain in the year 1725, as Imperial minister, went about Madrid and to court in a coach and six mules; which being a privilege particular to the princes of the blood, the count was desired to lay it aside, as the other envoys would affect the like parade. Mem. de Montgon. Tom. I. p. 294.

Spain abounds in sheep, and their wool is the finest in all Europe †. On the other hand, it is deficient in horned cattle, especially in the inland provinces, but has a sufficiency of game of all kinds, and of wild fowl and poultry (k.)

Spain, as environed by the sea on two sides, is provided with variety of fish (l), yet not sufficiently to supply home consumption.

The vegetable kingdom, besides great quantities of very good ship-timber growing on the Pyrenees (m), affords the finest fruits; as pears, peaches, figs, almonds, oranges, pomegranates, chesnuts, olives, which yield excellent oil; likewise wine* and grapes. The great number of mulberry-trees in Andalusia and Granada, are a nursery for silk-worms; and the sweet-scented herbs and flowers gratify the bees, the honey of which is exquisite. Spain likewise bears the sugar-cane, saffron, rice, hemp,

In the vegetable kingdom.

† The number of sheep in Spain is reckoned at above eight millions, and forty thousand shepherds. Ustariz Theorica y Practica de Comercio y Marina. Cap. XI.

(k) Bosius in Notit. Hisp. Sect. III. c. i. § 5.

(l) Ibid. l. c.

(m) Ustariz en la Theorica y Practica de Marina, c. lxiii.

* The Spanish wines were formerly disagreeable both in taste and smell; but the emperor Charles V. having caused some German vines to be transplanted into Spain, this has given those good qualities for which at present they are in so much repute. Bosius, l. c. p. 53.

and

and flax (*n*), but does not produce sufficient quantity of grain, though formerly it exported wheat to the Low Countries (*o*).

In the former
file king-
dom.

Spain antiently surpassed all countries in Europe, and most of the other parts of the world, for valuable minerals, it being almost incredible what a quantity of gold and silver, according to the ancient reports, were fetched away from thence, by foreign nations †. But since the discovery of the New World, the Spaniards have given over searching for those metals in their own mines, which, however, supply them with many other valuable metals and minerals; as iron, lead, tin, quicksilver, cinnabar, alum, lapis-lazuli, calamine, crystal, magnets, and several gems, particularly diamonds and amethysts (*p*); rock, mineral,

(*n*) Vayrac. Tom. I. p. 71.

(*o*) Bosius, l. c.

† Though in the most ancient times the Phœnicians, and after them the Carthaginians, carried a prodigious quantity of gold and silver out of Spain, yet was not the country exhausted; the Romans being charged with having brought to Rome 111542 pounds of silver, and 4095 pounds of gold, within the first nine years, after they had, in the second Punic war, driven the Carthaginians out of Spain. Universal Hist. Vol. xviii. p. 517. The province of Asturias was particularly famous for its great quantities of gold. Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. XXXIII. cap. iv. Silius Italicus, Lib. I. v. 231. makes mention of the Asturians as a very avaricious people.

Astur avarus
Visceribus laceræ telluris mergitur imis,
Et reдит infelix effosso concolor auro.

(*p*) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 70, 71.

and

and sea-salt; soda, or kali, Spain has in such abundance, as to export great quantities.

S E C T. VII.

The Spanish monarchy formerly consisted of two capital kingdoms, Castile and Arragon; but at present the latter is entirely incorporated with the former. Castile included the kingdoms of, 1. New Castile. 2. Old Castile. 3. Leon. 4. Navarre*. 5. Granada. 6. Galicia. 7. Seville. 8. Cordoua†. 9. Murcia. 10. The principality of Asturias. Likewise the provinces of, 11. Estremadura. 12. Guipuscoa. 13. Alava; and 14. the lordship of Biscay.

Division of
the king-
dom.

To Arragon belonged the kingdoms of, 15. Arragon. 16. Valencia. 17. Majorca†, and 18. The principality of Catalonia.

These eighteen provinces constitute the present kingdom of Spain, in which are reckoned 1500 cities or walled towns: but in these are different gradations; some,

* Ferdinand the Catholic having conquered Navarre in the year 1512, solemnly united it to the crown of Castile, in an assembly of the states held at Burgos, in the year 1515. Mariana, Lib. XXX. c. 24.

† This and the kingdom of Seville make the province of Andalusia.

‡ In this kingdom of Majorca, or Malorca, are comprehended the other three Balearic islands, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera.

which were the residence of kings and bishops, and of the religious orders of knight-hood, in virtue of that distinction, still enjoy particular rights and privileges, and are called ciudades; the others only villas (*q.*)

S E C T. VIII.

Depend-
encies,

In Africa.

But the Spaniards have likewise many and great dependencies in the three other parts of the world. 1. In Africa, on the coast of Barbary, Ceuta, Oran, and Mafalquivir *; and in the ocean the Canary-Islands, which abound in wine, sugar, and valuable fruits.

In Asia.

2. In Asia they have the Ladrones and Philippine islands; among which last the principal is Lucon, with the famous city of Manilla.

3. Farther, to the same nation is subject the greatest and best part of America, to the extent of above a thousand geographical miles from north to south. In this large tract, they are possessed of California, New-Mexico, the three kingdoms of Mexico, or New-Spain, New-Granada, and Peru;

(*q.*) Bosius in Notit. Hisp. Sect. III. ch. i. §. 9.

* These three places, which bring in nothing to the crown, and the garrisons of which are very chargeable, are kept purely as a pretence for the king to levy the produce of the Croisade bull. Science du Gouvernement, by M. de Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 94.

likewise Chili, Tucumannia, Paraguay; together with the island of Cuba, part of the island of Hispaniola, Porto-Rico, the Lucayan islands; as also Trinidad, Margarita, and some of the Caribbee islands.

These countries produce great quantities of valuable commodities of all kinds (r); Mexico and Peru, particularly, are very rich in gold and silver*.

The Spaniards ground their right of conquering the New World on the grant of pope Alexander VI. (s), and on the war which, in consequence of this bull, they made on that people, with extreme cruelty†.

(r) See Chap. II. and Sect. lv.

* Peru at first remitted annually to Spain to the amount of thirteen millions of ducats in gold. Inca Garcilasso de la Vega's History of the Incas of Peru, Book VIII. c. xxiv. p. 354. The silver mines in the mountains of Potosi, the first forty years after the discovery of them, yielded 555,000,000 pieces of eight, exclusive of the unregistered silver, by which the king was defrauded of his fifths, and they likewise were something very considerable. See Antonio De Herrera en los Hechos de los Castellanos en las Islas y Tierra firme del Mar Oceano. Dec. I. Lib. II. cap. xiv. 15. The gold and silver which Spain has received from America, from 1492 to 1724, is reckoned at 5000 millions of pieces of eight. See Don Geronymo de Ustariz in Theorica y Practica de Marina y Comercio. Cap. iii. p. 6, 7.

(s) It is to be found in Leibnitii Cod. Jur. Gent. Diplom. N. CCH. p. 294. and in Du Mont, Corps. Univ. Dipl. Tom. III. P. II. N. CLXI. p. 302.

† The Spaniards are charged with having killed, or put to death in the New World between twelve and fifteen million of people. Istoria della Distruttione dell' Indie occidentali di Bartolomeo de las Casas, p. 11, 12, 14.

They have hitherto been accounted invincible in America (*t*) ; but in the last war the English have shewn the contrary.

S E C T. IX.

Its former
dependen-
cies in Eu-
rope.

Spain had formerly very considerable dependencies in Europe ; as the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, the island of Sardinia, the dutchy of Milan, and the Austrian Netherlands. But they were all dismembered from it by the peace of Utretcht in the year 1713 ; which, however, was no real loss to the crown, the defences of such remote countries being very chargeable* : but the Spanish nobility were sufferers by this change, many governments and other lucrative employments ceasing at that separation. Not many years after, the fortune of war gave Naples and Sicily to one Spanish prince, and Parma and Placentia to another ; so that these countries are again become, in some measure, dependent on Spain.

S E C T. X.

The Gaulish
Celts.

The Gaulish Celts were unquestionably the first who peopled Spain : the goodness

(*t*) See De Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 91.

* The Netherlands alone are said to have cost the crown of Spain from the time of Charles V. to 1663, 187,000,000 of livres. *Annales Politiques de Saint Pierre*, Part I. p. 180.

and

and opulency of the country, in subsequent times, drew thither other foreign nations, particularly the Phœnicians and Carthaginians. The former, for the conveniency of their trade, established colonies on the south and west coasts. The latter forcibly spread themselves up the country; but in the second Punic war were totally driven out by the Romans, who, after several obstinate wars, became masters of Spain, and kept possession above four hundred years; during which time Spain had the honour of giving three emperors to Rome (u.)

But in the beginning of the fifth century, this province was over-run by the Vandals, the Suevi, and Alani, who divided it by lot (x). The former, however, some time after, passed over into Africa, and the others were subdued by the Visigoths, who erected a vast kingdom; comprehending, besides Spain, part of Gaul, and the province of Mauritania Tingitana in Africa.

This kingdom of the Visigoths was brought to a period by the loss of one deci-

(u) Claudian in Laud. Serenæ, v. 66.

Sola novum Latiis vestigal Iberia rebus,

Contulit Augustus, fruges, æraria, miles

Undique conveniunt; totoque ex orbe leguntur:

Hæc generat, qui cuncta regant.

(x) Idatius in Chron. ad ann. 18. Honorii, says expressly: Subversis Hispaniæ provinciis, barbari . . . sorte ad habitandum sibi provinciarum dividunt regiones.

five battle against the Moors, who, within two years, likewise reduced all Spain, and afterwards Gothick Gaul.

718.

Some remains of the Visigoths sought shelter from the ferocity of the conquerors, in the mountains of Asturias; and under Pelagius, whom they had chosen their king, began to make head against the Moors, and successively dispossessed them of towns and parcels of land, which proved the foundation of the kingdom of Leon; and from its subsequent conquests, arose the county of Castile.

778.

In the like manner Charles the Great, king of France, and afterwards Roman emperor, dispossessed the Moors of the whole country as far as the Pyrenees; and these conquests formed the county of Navarre, which afterwards was raised to a kingdom. Sancho III. one of its kings, very much enlarged his dominions by successful wars; and by his marriage with Nunnia, Countess of Castile, annexed that county to his other territories. The partition of his dominions among his sons, gave rise to two new kingdoms, Castile and Arragon; and with the former Leon became united by a marriage.

1034.

1037.

These kingdoms waged a perpetual war against the Moors, who, weakened by their partitions and dissensions, continually lost ground;

ground ; so that in process of time Granada was all that remained to that nation. Particularly Castile on one side, and Arragon on the other, had made considerable conquests upon them ; and thus all Spain, except Granada and Navarre, fell under their dominion. To Castile belonged Leon, Galicia, Asturias, Guipuscoa, Alava, Biscay, Estremadura, Andalusia, and Murcia ; the kingdom of Arragon comprehended Valencia, Catalonia, and the Balearic islands. The last had also made some foreign conquests, and subdued Sicily and Sardinia.

All these states became united by the ^{1469.} marriage of Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile. When the new govern- ^{1481.} ment was thought sufficiently consolidated in both kingdoms, they attacked Granada, and after a ten years war reduced it, which put an end to the dominion of the Moors in Spain. They had conquered it in two years, and by only one pitched battle ; whereas the expulsion of them was a work of near 800 years, attended with 3,700 engagements (y).

Spain was now become a very powerful ^{1492.} kingdom. The discovery of the New

(y) Catalogo Real y Genealogico de Espana, por Rodrigo Mendez Silva, p. 158. This author adds, that some increased the number of these engagements, which he terms Battallas Campales, or pitched battles, to five thousand.

World by Christopher Columbus aggrandized it still more; and the address and courage of Ferdinand the Catholic, brought the kingdoms of Naples and Navarre under his dominions.

1504.

1512.

1519.

1554.

His grandson and successor Charles I. gave the crown of Spain a greater lustre and consideration by the Imperial title, which he obtained, notwithstanding all the opposition of France. The singular good fortune which had ever accompanied him against all his enemies, and particularly against Francis I. he vigorously pushed to the advantage of Spain, adding to it Milan, and the kingdoms of Mexico and Peru. He had the same design on England in marrying his son Philip to queen Mary; and though this was defeated by her dying without issue, and though he could not transmit the Imperial crown to him, yet he left him the greatest potentate in Europe, or rather of the whole universe.

1580.

1588.

Philip was for realising that universal monarchy, to which his father had been paving the way for him; and his hopes were the more sanguine, having united to Spain the kingdom of Portugal, with its large possessions in the East and West Indies. But the miscarriage of his enterprize against England and France, and his inability

lity to quell the revolted Netherlands, convinced him of the improbability of such extensive projects. ^{1590.}

The Spanish power, which under him had reached its zenith, began to totter, and decline more and more under his successors. Philip III. his son weakened the state by expelling the Maranes, the most laborious of his subjects, by the misconduct of his privado, the duke of Lerma; and lastly, by engaging in a war against the Protestants in Germany. The latter brought the arms of France on his son Philip IV. the consequence of which was the defection of the Catalonians; and this drew on the revolt of the kingdom of Portugal. By these disasters Philip IV. was constrained at the peace of Munster to acknowledge the United Netherlands as a free state; and at the peace of the Pyrenees, to France he ceded Conflans, Roussillon, the far greater part of Artois, with other considerable parcels of the Netherlands. ^{1610.} ^{1635.} ^{1639.} ^{1640.} ^{1648.} ^{1659.}

At his demise, his son Charles II. was a minor, and left in a labyrinth of misfortunes; so that, at the peace, the ill state of his affairs obliged him to renounce all claim to the kingdom of Portugal: by three wars with France, in which he lost a great part of Flanders, and other provinces of the Low Countries, together with the country

1700.

try of Burgundy, so exhausted was the Spanish monarchy, that this prince, though possessor of the treasures of the West Indies, did not leave ready money enough to defray his funeral (z).

1713.

1717.

1733.

His death and will brought on a long and severe war between Philip V. duke of Anjou, whom he had nominated his heir, and Charles III. archduke of Austria. The former was by the peace of Utrecht established in the monarchy, the latter had the greater part of its European possessions. To Great Britain were ceded Gibraltar and the island of Minorca, which it had conquered during the war. King Philip could not rest till he had recovered the Italian territories, which had formerly belonged to the crown of Spain; but Great Britain and France frustrated this attempt. He, however, made use of another opportunity to place his third son Charles on the throne of Naples and Sicily; and in the war for the Austrian succession, he intended erecting a sovereignty in the upper part of Italy for his fourth son Don Philip. This scheme after the death of Philip V. was in some measure effected by

(z) Francisc. Wagner in Hist. Leopoldi M. P. II. p. 564, says; "Cum ad funerales sumtus (Caroli II.) impar esset ararium, Portocarrerus factus pro rege fidejussor, mutuam pecuniam adhibuit, alienoque ære extulit tot regnorum dominum.

Ferdinand V. his successor; Parma, Placentia and Guastalla, being by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle settled under certain conditions on Don Philip. This king's views ^{1748.} were principally directed to the internal improvement of his dominions and the preservation of peace; so that he declined taking part in the war which had newly broke out between France and Great Britain; ^{1755.} but after his demise, his brother and successor Charles III. to gratify France, ^{1759.} with which he had united himself by the Family-compact, as it was called, became a party in it. But the consequences of this ^{1761.} step proved very unfortunate; the English, besides other conquests, making themselves masters of the Havannah; and in return for ^{1762.} that important place, Florida was ceded to them at the peace. ^{1763.}

S E C T. XI.

Spain having been successively possessed by so many foreign people, the Phœnicians, ^{Spaniards, a mixed people.} Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Suevi, Alani, afterwards by the Visigoths, and lastly by the Moors, among whom were great numbers of Jews; it is easily seen that, generally considered, the Spaniards must be a very mixed kind of people: but the descendants of these several people did not

not equally stand their ground, one being overpowered and subdued by another. The Romans expelled the Carthaginians; the Vandals, Suevi, and Alani, after dispossessing the Romans with great slaughter, met with the like treatment from the Visigoths; and these could not withstand the invasion of the Moors, though they were not totally extirpated or driven out of the country, such numbers remaining that they again took up arms against the conquerors; and, in a long succession of years, partly subdued them, and partly compelled them to return to Africa, their mother-country. Thus the Visigoths are the main stock of the Spanish nation, with a considerable mixture of descendants from the Moors, a few from the Romans and Suevi, and fewer still from the Jews, and the fewest of all from the ancient inhabitants (a).

S E C T. XII.

Character of
the Spaniards.

The Spaniards, as to their persons, are in general of a middle size, or low stature, and withal lean and meagre. They are well limbed, but with weak eyes, which makes spectacles so common among them *.

(a) Bosius in Notit. Hisp. Sect. III. cap. i. §. 11. p. 60, 61, &c.

* Spectacles, besides the use of them for weak eyes, are likewise worn by persons of rank out of parade and affectation. See Gundling's Otia, Vol. I. p. 24.

They

They are of a brown complexion, with something grave or stern and forbidding in their aspect; which, however, relates only to the men; the women, besides their beauty, being more lively and agreeable in their manners (*b*). Among the diseases of both sexes, the venereal is the most common; but they make light of it (*c*).

They are naturally pensive and melancholy; in their deliberations and resolves slow; and in conversation suspicious, discerning, and reserved. They have a large share of ambition, but likewise of firmness and fortitude; are very temperate in eating, and still more in drinking (*d*); they are celebrated for magnanimity, probity, constancy in friendship, and punctual observance of their word (*e*).

This is the bright side of the Spaniards. On the other hand one sees, and sometimes amidst the most sordid poverty, an intolerable haughtiness, and a contempt of other nations (*f*). They are likewise charged with extreme avarice, seizing every oppor-

(*b*) Bosius, Sect. III. cap. i. §. 15. p. 67, 68. Gundling's Otia, Part I. p. 21, 24.

(*c*) Relation du Voyage d'Espagne, Tom. III. Lett. XI. p. 85, 86.

(*d*) Barclaii Icon Animor. cap. vii.

p. 4.

p. m. 439. Bosius, l. c. p. 68, 69.

(*e*) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 27, 28.

(*f*) Barclaius, ibid. c. vii. p. 439. Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 40.

tunity,

tunity, however iniquitous, of enriching themselves; an art in which their viceroys, governors, and other officers in America, not excepting even the missionaries in that country, are most infamously expert (g). Lewdness is one of their capital vices. Married and unmarried youths and boys, keep mistresses; and from this propensity springs their great veneration and complaisance to the fair-sex, together with that jealousy which is so predominant in them, that they stick at nothing to gratify it. In revenge they are equally vehement, and generally have it executed by bravo's or murderers (i); looking on duelling, so much practised by other nations, as giving advantages to an enemy, at one's own peril (k). The proceedings of the Spaniards towards the Moors, the Indians, and the Flemings, leave an indelible brand of cruelty on their name (l).

Though avaricious, they are slothful, and hate work, by which they might be

(g) Relation du Voyage d'Esp. Tom. III. Lett. XI. p. 64.

(h) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 38, 39, 43. See likewise L'Espion dans les Cours des Princes Chrétiens, Tom. II. Lett. I. p. 137, 138.

(i) Arcana Dominationis Hispanæ, per J. L. W. c. xxv.

(k) Relation du Voyage d'Esp. Tom. III. Lett. XI p. 77, 78.

(l) Arcana Dominat. Hisp. cap. xxvi. et xxxiii. See likewise L'Espion dans les Cours des Princes Chrétiens, Tom. II. Lett. xxx. p. 85, 86.

earning something, and particularly handicrafts and agriculture. The source of this indolence lies in their pride, all pretending to be descended from the Visigoths; and that to stoop to such low employments would be debasing their illustrious origin (*m*). This makes the commonalty so very poor; and persons of rank are often reduced to exigencies by their negligence and mismanagement *. The grandees are very profuse in fine furniture, and often expend a great part of their estates in plate, of which some have an amazing quantity, though seldom used but at nuptials (*n*). The Spaniards are very conceited and tenacious of their old customs and manners, and would equally detest any alteration in their dress, as in the ceremonies of the church: the public games and diversions used by their ancestors, subsist to this very day.

(*m*) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 47, 48.

(*n*) Relation du Voyage d'Espagne, Tom. II. Lett. ix. p. 173.

* Their creditors are often very great losers, it being in the debtor's power to cancel all their claims, by appointing a great number of masses to be said for his soul; the sums at which the charge of these is computed being previously deducted from the inheritance; and thus little or nothing may remain for the creditors. This injurious piece of devotion has given rise to the proverb: *Fulano dexado su alma herédera*; "Such a one has made his soul his heir."

(*n*) Relation du Voyage d'Espagne. Vol. II. Letter IX. p. 173.

Among

Among these, the principal are the bull-fights (*o*); and the pope himself, though so much respected in Spain, never has been able to abolish those sanguinary entertainments*.

S E C T. XIII.

Antipathy
of the Spaniards
and French.

It is not only in their customs and manners, but likewise in their natural disposition, that the Spaniards differ very much from other nations, and particularly from the French (*p*); hence some deduce the violent aversion, or antipathy as it is called, between the Spanish and French nations†.

(*o*) A description of the bull-fights occurs in *Voyages en Espagne et en Portugal*, p. 94, &c. and in the *Relation du Voyage d'Espagne*, Tom. III. Lett. X. p. 23, 24, &c.

* The first public and solemn bull-fights were exhibited in the year 1100. Pope Pius V. in 1567, issued an express ordinance against them, but the Spaniards would not give up their favourite diversion; and so far prevailed with pope Clement VIII. that in 1596, he renewed the permission of them, under certain limitations. *Rodrigo Mendez Silva Catalogo Real y genealogico de Espanna*, fol. 49. a.

(*p*) Gundling's Antipathy of the Spaniards and French; in answer to M. Bayle, in his *Otia*, Part I. c. 2. §. 5. p. 83.

† Of this opinion is Gundling, in his *Otia*, §. 7. p. 86. Garfia, a Spaniard, who has wrote a book on this antipathy, ascribes it to the immediate operation of the devil. That evil spirit, says he, was afraid that, should the Spaniards and French, whom he stiles the noblest nations, and the two great luminaries of the earth, close in an union, they would subdue the whole world, and spread the Christian religion every where; and thus his kingdom would come to nothing. In order to prevent this, he kindles such a flame of discord and enmity between them, as should burn with perpetual violence. *Antipatia de' Francesi e Spagnuoli del Dottor. D. Carlo Garfia*, cap. vii. p. 100, &c.

But

But this antipathy proceeds not so much from natural, as political causes. The jealousy excited by the great power of one crown, the projects on both sides to the prejudice of the other, the opposite views, together with the many and obstinate wars occasioned by such contrariety of interest, are what gave rise to, and have continued, a violent aversion and enmity between them. This, experience undeniably confirms. For the Spaniards coming to have a French king, which united the political views of both, before so directly opposite, the two nations have lived in perfect harmony, and the former enmity is turned into a firm and zealous friendship †.

S E C T. XIV.

The Romans, with their sovereignty, introduced their language into Spain. Some Spanish writers, however, ascribe this chiefly to the emperor Marcus Antoninus Pius, and relate, that by an edict he suppressed the several languages which were spoken in Spain, and erected schools for

Spanish language.

† What Bayle says in his answer to the questions of a country-gentleman, Tom. I. p. 102, perfectly agrees with the French and Spaniards. "Leave neighbouring nations all their difference of manners and customs, but remove from them jealousy and an affectation of equality or superiority, and make their political interests the same, you shall soon see them become friends, and cordially draw together."

teaching the Roman ; but that the Cantabrians, who inhabited the kingdom of Navarre, and the provinces of Biscay, Alva, Guipuscoa and Rioja, retained their former idiom (*q*) ; and are said to speak it to this very day, with only a very slender mixture of the Castilian (*r*). On the successful invasion of the Vandals, Suevi, and Visigoths, the Roman became so adulterated with their languages, as to form a new dialect, into which the Moors likewise introduced many Arabic words. The present Spanish language, accordingly, is a compound of the languages of all these several nations, with the predominancy of the Roman ; on which account the Spaniards term their language Romance. It has several dialects, but the Castilian passes for the best and most pure (*s*). The Spanish language, like the people, is grave and majestic. Mariana observes it to be so far analogous to the Latin, that Spanish and Latin may be spoken with the same words, and in the same construction (*t*). During the prosperity of the Spanish monarchy, their language was in the same vogue as the French at present ; but since

(*q*) Catalogo Real y Genealogico de Espanna, por Rodrigo Mendez Silva, p. 8. a.

(*r*) Bosius in Notit. Hisp. Sect. III. c. i. §. 14. p. 67.

(*s*) Ibid. Sect. III. cap. i. §. 14. p. 67.

(*t*) Mariana's General History of Spain, Book I. c. 5.

Spain came to lose the far greater part of its European dependencies, it has no longer been so common.

S E C T. XV.

Spain is so thinly peopled, that some will allow it only four millions of inhabitants (*u*); but this undoubtedly is too little. A very sagacious Spanish politician in the year 1723 reckoned them at seven millions and a half (*x*); and this is the number at which they are now computed (*y*). The country, with respect to its extent, could maintain many more; but to this augmentation there have been and still are several impediments.

1. The many severe wars.
2. The driving out the Jews and Maranas under Ferdinand the Catholic and Philip III.
3. The West-India colonies * and garrisons.
4. The

Number of
inhabitants.

(*u*) M. de Real Science du Gouvernem. Part I. Tom. II. p. 85.

(*x*) Ustariz's Theory and Practice of Trade and the Marine, c. 18.

(*y*) The Rev. Mr. Sufmilch's Divine Oeconomy, &c. cap. xx. §. 379.

* The emigrations to America Don Geronymo de Ustariz, however, will not admit as a principal cause of the thinning of Spain; Galicia, Biscay, Navarre, &c. from whence emigrations are most frequent, being very populous; whilst the countries of Toledo, la Mancha, Guadalaxara, &c. whence very few go to visit the New World, are the barest of inhabitants. And thus in his account the decay of trade and manufactures, and the poverty consequential to those evils, together with the heavy taxes on the inhabitants, are the chief causes of the depopulation. Theory and Practice of Commerce and the Marine, cap. XII. p. 21, 22.

great number of ecclesiastics and religious of both sexes. 5. The inquisition, which deters foreigners from settling in Spain. 6. The sterility of married women; the blame of which, however, is not so much to be charged on the sex, as on the premature licentiousness of the men. 7. The barrenness of some parts, which is such, as not to bear many inhabitants; and 8. The taxes, too heavy for the comfortable support of a family (x). King Philip IV. indeed, endeavoured to promote population by granting privileges and conveniencies to those who married early and had children; but all his good intentions have failed of their desired effect (a).

S E C T. XVI.

Upper and
lower Spanish nobility.

The principal among the Spanish nobility were formerly called Ricos homes or Ricos hombres, perhaps, from their estates and wealth *. But this title has ceased since

(x) Bosius in Notit. Hisp. Sect. III. c. i. Sect. III. p. 63, 65. See likewise Science du Gouvernement, par M. de Real.

(a) Bosius l. c. p. 65. Thomas Campanella in Discursu de Monarchia Hispan. c. xxxi. p. 318, 319. advised to remove Indians and Africans into Spain. "Nothing is more absurd, says he, than to make that country a storehouse of gold and silver, and not rather of men and women, these being much more valuable and useful than both those metals put together."

* The Ricos hombres were made by the delivery of a banner and a kettle to them, as tokens of a right to bring troops

those

those of dukes, marquesses, counts, viscounts, and barons, have been adopted † (b). These constitute the upper nobility in Spain, and are stiled *Titulados* or *Titulos*, with the word *Don* before their names, which, however, is likewise taken by the knights of the three religious orders, and other persons in respectable employments.

The lower nobility or gentry are called *Hidalgos*; and among these are likewise reckoned the *Cavalleros* and *Escuderos*. Spain is particularly favourable to foundlings, who by custom are accounted *Hidalgos* (c.)

It was anciently a singular custom among the Spanish nobility, that on any one's having cause of discontent, or imagining he had, from any real or supposed affront or injury, he solemnly revoked his allegiance to the king, and renounced his country. This

into the field, and of their being able to maintain them. Selden's *Titles of Honour*, Part II. c. iv. Manoel Severim De Faria nas *Noticias de Portugal*, p. 127.

† Rodrigo Mendez Silva en el *Catalogo Real y Genealogico*, fol. xxxi. b. & 133. says, that Ferdinand the Catholic suppressed the title of *Ricos hombres*, substituting in lieu of it, that of *Grandee*; but this is a mistake, the latter title having been used long before.

(b) See Selden's *Titles of Honours*, Part II. c. iv.

(c) *Memoires instructifs pour un Voyageur*, Tom. II. p. 72. Concerning this custom the Spaniards say, that, in doubtful cases, it is better to give nobility to one who had it not, than to deprive one whose right it was.

was called Desnaturalizarse; and a nobleman, after this formality, might go over to the enemy, and even to the Moors, and carry arms against his king and his country, without being chargeable with any crime or violation of his duty (*d*).

S E C T. XVII.

Grandees of Spain.

Among the upper nobility of Spain, the dukes, some marquesses, and some counts, have particular honours and privileges; on which account they are stiled Grandees; a title used, at least, under king John I. (*e*). One of their greatest privileges is their being covered before the king; a ceremony, however, that formerly admitted of some difference. Some put on their hats before speaking to the king; others, not till they had done speaking; and others, not before taking leave of the king, and going away from his presence; and on this account the grandees were divided into three classes: but this distinction is at present laid aside, the king making only grandees of the first class (*f*). They take place of all officers

(*d*) Mariana, Book XI. chap. xi. Book XII. chap. xii. Book XIV. chap. 12. and Ofor. de Reb. Eman. Lib. XI. p. 323.

(*e*) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 182, 183.

(*f*) Clarke's Letters concerning the Spanish Nation. Letter VII. Part II. p. 119.

of state, or those belonging to the court, the constable and admiral of Castile excepted. They are allowed to keep heralds, and to have a sword carried before them. In chapel they sit on a bench on one side of the king. They cannot be put under arrest, but by his majesty's express order. They put themselves on a footing with the electors of the empire and the princes of Italy (g). They likewise had formerly a dispute with the peers of France, which in the year 1701 was adjusted on these terms; that the grandees of Spain, when in France, shall enjoy the privileges of peers, and these in Spain shall be treated as grandees (h).

King Lewis I. to the extreme mortification of the grandees made the captain and lieutenant-general, their equals in respect of precedence at court (i).

S E C T. XVIII.

The form of government in the Spanish monarchy, and of its particular kingdoms, Form of government. has undergone several vicissitudes. The Visigoth kings were elected with a limited prerogative, the consent of the great and

(g) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 201, 206.

(h) Ibid. p. 177.

(i) Deformeaux dans l'Abregé Chronologique de l'Hist. d'Espagne, Tom. V. p. 382.

the lesser nobility being requisite in every important step of government. King Reccared I. having embraced the Catholic religion, the prelates and other dignitaries soon rose to great consideration, not only in the concerns of the church and religion, but even in the discussing of state-affairs, so that laws were made in their assemblies (*k*); which thus were become both synods and diets.

Several kingdoms springing up in Spain on the extinction of the monarchy of the Visigoths, the royal prerogative was in all very much curtailed by the states of the country. In Castile, the upper nobility, the clergy, the three orders of knighthood, who with the principal cities made the states of the kingdom, could levy troops, and sometimes used this privilege against the kings themselves *.

The states of Arragon, who consisted of the clergy, the nobility, and the cities, were possessed of very great privileges and immunities; and king Alphonso III. under penalty of forfeiting his crown, bound himself and his successors to the observance of

(*k*) See the decrees of the fourth, fifth, and sixth council of Toledo, in Ferrera's General History of Spain, Vol. II. p. 366, 371, 375.

* Of this are instances in the histories of John II. and Henry IV.

them.

them (*l*). Nay, the kings of Arragon in any disputes with their subjects were obliged to submit to a judge, who was stiled El Justicia, and who kept the king's prerogative within due limits (*m*).

These two kingdoms becoming united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile, each retained its particular form of government. Under this joint sovereignty, however, the power and exorbitant privileges of the Castilian grantees were very much abridged; but the Arragonians preserved all their ancient liberties; king Ferdinand apprehending that it might be of ill consequence to infringe them (*n*). They were, however, so offensive to him, that having in the year 1515 conquered the kingdom of Navarre, he united it with Castile, because, as Mariana observes, the Navarrians might lay claim to the liberties of the Arragonians; for otherwise he might better have united Navarre with Arragon: these two kingdoms had been formerly united, and he himself was immediately king of Arragon (*o*). Under the emperor Charles V. the states of Cas-

(*l*) See the decrees of the fourth, fifth, and sixth councils of Toledo, as before cited, Vol. IV. p. 427.

(*m*) A. Perez obras y Relaciones, p. 141. Mariana, Book VIII. cap. i.

(*n*) Anton. Perez, p. 143.

(*o*) Mariana, Book XXX. chap. xxiv.

tile lost the greater part of their ancient consideration ; for that prince having at the diet of Toledo, held in 1538, demanded an extraordinary supply, and the nobility and cities refusing their consent, he abruptly dissolved the assembly ; and this was the last diet of Castile in which the states assisted (*p*). The kings ever after omitted the archbishops, bishops, and nobility, and summoned only eighteen cities, each of which sent two representatives (*q*).

The Arragonians, some time after, met with the like treatment. In the year 1591, a state prisoner, the celebrated Anthony Perez, who had been secretary of state, was released by an insurrection of the people of Saragossa ; and king Philip II. sending a body of troops into Arragon to chastise the insurgents, the Justicia John de la Nuza opposed it with an armed force : but the king caused his head to be taken off, without the least examination or trial (*r*) ; in flagrant violation of the Arragonian liberties. They, however, still retained their constitution, and their peculiar council of state, as instituted by Ferdinand the Catholic, till the war for the Spanish succession, in which

(*p*) Ferreras, Vol. IX. p. 236, 237.

(*q*) Science du Gouvernem. par M. de Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 102, 103.

(*r*) Anton. Perez, p. 158, 159, &c.

Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, had declared for the Austrian party. On this account Philip V. deprived them of all their privileges; and totally abolishing the form of government, which had subsisted so long, united them to the crown of Castile, and subjected them to its laws (*s*). Thus the kings of Spain, at present, exercise an unlimited power in all parts of the kingdom: and as for the Cortes, or assembly of the states, it is only on certain solemnities, or for settling the succession, that they are convened.

S E C T. XIX.

Each of the several kingdoms and provinces of which the Spanish monarchy has been gradually compounded, had its own fundamental laws; but since their being united, and still more since the prerogative grew to be unlimited, few of those laws remain, and these chiefly relate to the succession. The Spanish kings at first divided their dominions among their children, as appears from the example of Sancho the Great, king of Navarre; Ferdinand I. Alphonso VI. Alphonso VIII. kings of Castile and Leon; and James I. king of Arragon. But time

(*s*) Deformeaux, Tom. V. p. 272, 273. Miniana de Bello rustico Valentino, Lib. III. c. xix. Mr. de Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 108.

shewed

shewed the inconveniency of these divisions; and Ferdinand III. king of Castile, established the right of primogeniture by law (A). Pursuant to this regulation the crown devolves to the eldest son, and after him to his descendants in a right line; and in the want of a male issue, to the king's eldest daughter. If the eldest son dies before his entering on the succession, and leaves a son or daughter by a legitimate marriage, he or she is to have the crown; and in failure of all these, it is to go to the nearest of kin *.

Another law was made by the same prince against any division or partition of the kingdom, in virtue of which it is always to remain consolidated, without any alienation or division; and this law was to be sworn to by the sovereign at his accession, and by

(A) This occurs in the code published by king Alphonso XI. called *Las Siete Partidas*, Partida II. Tit. 15. Ley. 2. from which Mr. Rouffet has inserted it, though not so correctly as could be wished, in the *Supplement au Corps Universel Diplomatique*, Tom. I. Part I. 101.

* This kind of succession is termed *Successio linealis cognatica*, or likewise *Castellana*. In it regard is first had to the line, and then to the degree; so that the nearest relation to the deceased king in the same line is to succeed him. After the line and degree, regard is had to the age and sex, the elder being preferred to the younger, and the princes to the princesses, that is to say, in the like line, and the like degree. H. Grot. de *Jure Belli & Pacis*, Lib. II. cap. vii. §. 22. and Mr. de Real Science du *Gouvernem.* Part I. Tom. II. p. 95.

the

the people at their taking the oath of fealty (*u*).

In Arragon, under the reign of James II. it was likewise enacted by a diet held at Taragona in 1319, that Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, together with their privileges and incomes, should be for ever incorporated, without any future separation (*x*).

These fundamental laws have both before and since the conjunction of the two kingdoms, been constantly observed down to our times.

But king Philip V. in the year 1713 altered the former mixed succession by a new law, that the princes should always take the lead of the princesses, who were never to inherit, except in case of a total failure of the male line (*y*). By this ordinance, the succession in the royal family was better secured, and not so frequently transferred by marriage into foreign families; which in Castile was the case three times, in Arragon twice, in Navarre seven times, and twice since the conjunction of the monarchy.

By that part of the treaty of Utrecht between Philip V. king of Spain, and Victor

(*u*) Las Siete Partidas, Partida II. Tit. xv. Ley. 5. And in *Suplem. au Corps Universel Diplomat. par Mr. Roussel*, Tom. I. Part I. p. 102.

(*x*) Ferrera's General History of Spain, Vol. IV. p. 592.

(*y*) Deformeaux, Tom. V. p. 312, 313.

Amadeus, duke of Savoy, the succession to the throne, on the extinction of the line of the former, is to devolve to the latter and his family (2). This arrangement having been previously agreed to by the states of the kingdom, is justly accounted among the fundamental laws of Spain.

The king's
majority.

The king's majority being not determined in Spain by any law, some minor kings have taken the reins of government sooner, and others later, into their hands; as Alphonso XI. king of Castile, on his entering into his fifteenth year; Henry III. at the age of only thirteen years and ten months; and John II. at the very beginning of his fourteenth year; from which it is probable, that the term of the king's minority does not at most reach beyond his being full fourteen years of age. For as to Charles II. having reached his sixteenth year before he assumed the government, this was owing to particular circumstances; among others to his being of a sickly habit, and weak both in body and mind. Besides, the queen-regent his mother, Mary-Anne of Austria, was for keeping her place at the helm as long as possible.

(2) Art. III. du Traité de Paix entre Philippe V. Roy d'Espagne, & Victor Amadée, Duc de Savoye, fait à Utrecht le 13me Aout 1713. See Corps-Universel Diplom. de M. du Mont, Tom. VIII.

The king appoints the regency, and the guardianship of the minor; and where no such provision has been made, the right belongs to the states of the kingdom.

S E C T. XX.

The Spanish kings have, in ancient times, ^{Title.} and long before the conjunction of the monarchy, affected very lofty and high-sounding titles, and not a few stiled themselves emperors of Spain; as Sancho the Great, king of Navarre; Ferdinand the Great; Alphonso VI. Alphonso VII. Alphonso VIII. kings of Castile, and others (*a*). The latter imagined, that as sovereign of several kingdoms, namely, Castile, Leon, and Galicia, and the kings of Navarre and Arragon being his vassals, he had a right to the title of emperor (*b*); so that he caused himself to be crowned as such at Leon, with great pomp (*c*). But his successors have not thought fit to imitate him. The king of Spain's present title is very diffuse, contain-

(*a*) Chifletius in Vindic. Hisp. cap. xi. p. 101, &c. et in Luminib, Prærogativ. X. p. 369, 370.

(*b*) Chiflet. in Lum. Prærog. X. p. 371.

(*c*) Mariana, Book X. c. xvi. Ferreras, Vol. III. According to the latter, only king Alphonso VIII. solemnly assumed the Imperial dignity; and his French translator thereupon observes, that the other abovenamed prince did not bear that title; but Chiflet has sufficiently proved it, at least of Ferdinand the Great, and Alphonso VI.

ing

ing the several kingdoms and countries, from the union of which the Spanish monarchy is formed ; likewise the foreign conquests, together with the Austrian and other dominions, of which they have long since been deprived. This title in Spanish runs thus.

Don — — — por la gracia de Dios, Rey de Castilla, de Leon, de Aragon, de las dos Sicilias, de Jerusalem, de Navarre, de Granada, de Toledo, de Valencia, de Galicia, de Mallorca, de Sevilla, de Cerdena, de Cordova, de Coreega, de Murcia, de Jaen, de los Algarves, de Algecira, de Gibraltar, de las Islas de Canaria, de las Indias Orientales y Occidentales, Islas y Tierra Firme del Mar Oceano, Archiduque de Austria, Duque de Borgonna, de Brabant y de Milan, Conde de Abspurg, de Flandres, de Tirol y de Barcelona, Senor de Vizcaya y de Molina, &c. *

* This was the title of king Ferdinand VI. in the ratification of the Asiento treaty with Great Britain, on the 5th of October 1750, at Madrid. See *Recueil d' Actes*, par M. Rousser, Tom. XX. p. 356. It is something singular that the king of Spain, being so styled by all Europe, instead of taking that title, always calls himself king of Castile, Leon, &c.

And

And in **LATIN.**

— — — Dei gratiâ Castellæ, Legionis, Aragoniæ, utriusque Siciliæ, Hierosolymarum, Navarræ, Granadæ, Toleti, Valentia, Galliciæ, Majoricæ, Hispalis, Sardinia, Cordubæ, Corsicæ, Murcia, Giennæ, Algarbiæ, Algeziræ, Gibraltaris, Insularum Canariæ, Indiarum Orientalium et Occidentalium, Insularum et Continentis Maris Oceani Rex, Archidux Austria, Dux Burgundiæ et Mediolani, Comes Habsburgi, Flandriæ, Tirolis et Barcinonis, Dominus Biscajæ et Molinæ, etc.

When the king of Spain signs an instrument, instead of subscribing his name, he writes, 'Yo el Rey, i. e. I the king;' but in letters to foreign princes he subscribes his own name (*d.*)

Besides the many titles which the king of Spain derives from his countries, he is also peculiarly stiled his Catholic Majesty. This surname pope Alexander VI. conferred in the year 1496 on king Ferdinand, in recompence of the extraordinary zeal for religion shewn by him and queen Isabella in

(*d.*) Ceremonial de la Cour d'Espagne, Liv. II. c. vi. §. 2. n. 5. dans le Ceremonial Diplomatique de M. Rouffet, Tom. II. p. 366.

making war on the Moors, expelling the Jews, and introducing the inquisition (*e*). The ancient Spanish councils had indeed, in their decrees, given that title to some Visigoth kings; and the popes in their letters to several kings of Leon and Castile (*f*). But this was rather a compliment than an authentic title, as the pope now accounts it *.

S E C T. XXI.

Arms.

The king of Spain's arms are as complicate as his titles. These consist of a shield quartered, together with a shield sur tout. The first quarter is counter-quartered: in the first and fourth quarters, is a castle, Sol, with three battlements in a field, Mars, for Castile; in the second and third, a crowned lion, Mars, in a field, Luna, for Leon. Between the two lower fields, are the arms of Granada, being a pomegranate, Venus, opened and seeded, Mars; and a sprig, Ve-

(*e*) Mariana, Book XXVI. c. xii. He says likewise, that the pope was disposed to confer the title of *Christianissimus* on king Ferdinand; but that did not take place, lest France might be displeased. There are, however, some gold coins, on which king Ferdinand is stiled *Catholicus Christianissimus*. Kopler's *Muntz*, V. *Lust. Hart.* III. p. 49, 50.

(*f*) Diego de Saavedre Faxardo, in *Corona Gothica*, Part. I. and p. 274.

* The superscription of the pope's letters were formerly, *Regi Castellæ Illustri*, but at present *Regi Hispaniarum Catholicæ*, but which the kings of Portugal would not for a long time allow. Mariana, Book I.

nus,

nus, in a field, Luna. The second quarter is paly: on the right are the arms of Arragon, four pallets, Mars, in a field, Sol; and on the left, those of Sicily, a shield quartered oblique; above and below, four pallets, Mars; on both sides an eagle, Saturn, in a field, Luna. The third quarter is parted: above is a chevron, Luna, in a field, Mars, representing Austria; below is bendy of six pieces, Sol and Jupiter, bordered, Mars, the ancient arms of Burgundy. The fourth quarter is likewise parted. In the upper part are the modern arms of Burgundy, being a shield, Jupiter, semee with flower-de-luces, Sol, with a bordure compone Luna and Mars: and beneath the arms of Brabant, a lion, Sol, in a field, Saturn. The sur tout contains the arms of Anjou, or three flower de-luces, Sol, in a field, Jupiter, with a bordure, Mars. The shield is surrounded with the collar of the order of the Holy-Ghost, and surmounted with a royal crown. The supporters are two lions.

A smaller shield is sometimes used, with only the arms of Castile and Leon, and those of Anjou (g).

(g) Mr. J. P. Reinhard's Introduction to the Knowledge of the principal States in Europe and Africa, p. 30, 31.

S E C T. XXII.

Precedency.

As the kings of Spain claim a superior rank before all Christian kings, they have, particularly since the reign of Charles V. endeavoured to obtain the precedence before the kings of France *; which, however, they have not been able thoroughly to compass, the French generally maintaining the pre-eminence †: and, at length, Philip IV. in the year 1662 plainly gave it up, in a declaration made to the French court; at

* The celebrated Chiffet has with great zeal maintained the Spanish cause in this dispute about rank, and given them the precedence for the following reasons. 1. That the family of the kings of Spain (of the Austrian line) is of greater antiquity than the French royal family. 2. That several kings of Spain have borne the title of emperor. 3. As being in number of countries and strength, far superior to the kings of France. And 4. That the title of Catholic king, and the greater antiquity of the Christian religion in Spain, and their zeal to maintain it pure and undefiled, necessarily intitle it to precedence and respect. Chiffetius in *Vindic. Hisp.* cap. x. p. 90. cap. xi. p. 101. c. xiv. p. 130. c. xv. p. 149. et in *Lumin. Prærogat.* xi. p. 406, 407. Add. Fern. Vasquius in *Illustr. Controv.* Part. I. Præf. p. 48. n. 131.

† The French side alledged their long and continued possession; and that in disputable cases, the decision has been always in favour of France. Vid. Jac. Gothofredi, *Diatr. de Præcedentia*, P. I. cap. 2. §. 6, 7, 11. At the council of Trent, the Spanish ambassador left no stone unturned to obtain the precedence before the French, but without effect. See Father Paul's *History of the Council of Trent*, Book VII. and VIII. And some relate, that the Spaniards solicited the pope to declare their king emperor of the New World, conceiving, that thus they should make sure of the precedence in question. Vid. Hubert. Languet. *Lib. II. Epist.* 89.

least

least such was the construction put on it by Lewis XIV.

SECT. XXIII.

The ceremonies of unction and coronation were not in ancient times constantly observed in Spain. Vamba, a Visigoth king, and his successors, down to king Roderigo, caused themselves to be anointed and crowned (*i*): but nothing of this is mentioned concerning the subsequent kings of Asturia and Leon. After the junction of the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, we meet with three kings, Alphonso VIII *. Sancho IV. and John I. whose accession to the government was attended with these solemnities (*k*). The crowned kings among those of Arragon are, Peter II †. Peter III. Alphonso III. James II. Alphonso IV. and Peter IV. (*l*). But since the great union of Castile and Arragon, coronations have been laid aside as unnecessary. The king, at present, on

Coronation of the Visigoth kings.

Of the kings of Castile and Leon,

and of Arragon. Coronations discontinued.

(i) Ferreras in the year 672, 680, 686, 700.

* This prince, according to Mariana, Book X. chap. xvi. had himself crowned three times; first, at Leon, as emperor of Spain; and afterwards at Toledo and Compostella; so that he might, even in this particular, be on a footing with the Roman emperors, who used to be crowned three times.

(k) Ferreras, in the years 1135, 1284, 1319.

† This Peter was crowned at Rome by pope Innocent II. and in return for this favour, engaged to pay the fee of Rome an annual tribute of 250 doubloons. Ferreras, in the year 1204.

(l) Ferreras, in the years 1204, 1276, 1286, 1291, 1336.

on his accession to the crown, is proclaimed *; and after taking his oath, the states of the kingdom do him homage (*m*).

S E C T. XXIV.

Title of the
hereditary
prince of
Spain.

The hereditary prince of Spain is stiled prince of Asturias; a title which has been used ever since 1388, when the eldest son of king John the first, of Castile, married the princess Catherine, daughter to John duke of Lancaster (*n*). The succeeding kings have ever since declared their eldest son prince, or, in want of sons, their daughter princess of Asturias (*o*). This is accompanied with great solemnities, as proclamation by heralds, and taking the oath of fealty, by which the states of the kingdom, who are convened on that occasion, acknowledge him heir to the crown on the demise of the king (*p*).

The other royal children are called Infants and Infantas; and the estates which

* The ceremonies with which the proclamation is performed at Madrid, are to be found in the *Ceremonial d'Espagne*, Liv. II. ch. iii. §. 1. dans le *Ceremonial Diplomat. des Cours de l'Europe*, par M. Roussel, Tom. II. p. 343.

(*m*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 98.

(*n*) Mariana, Book XVIII. ch. xii. makes this the origin of it, that the king of England's eldest son being stiled prince of Wales, king John, in imitation of this custom, conferred the title of prince of Asturias on his heir.

(*o*) Vayrac, Tom. II. Liv. iii. p. 228, &c.

(*p*) Ibid. p. 237, &c. *Ceremonial d'Espagne*, Liv. II. ch. 2. *Ceremonial Dipl. par M. Roussel*, Tom. II. p. 344.

for-

formerly were assigned for their maintenance, were termed an Infantado or Infantazgo.

S E C T. XXV.

The present royal family of Spain is a younger branch of that of Bourbon. Philip V. duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV. and Maria Teresa, Philip IV's eldest daughter, was, by the will of Charles II. his grandmother's brother, nominated successor, and after a long and ruinous war, remained in possession of the crown. In 1724, he resigned it to his eldest son Lewis ; but that prince dying early he reascended the throne *, an event almost unparalleled in history. He was succeeded in 1746, by his second son, Ferdinand VI. who had for successor his brother Charles III. the fourth king of the house of Anjou.

Descent of
the royal
family.

S E C T. XXVI.

Toledo was formerly the residence of the Visigoth kings, and afterwards of most of

Madrid, the
residence of
the kings
of Spain.

* This occasioned the following epitaph on king Lewis :

Posterior patre sum, sed sum tamen & prior illo :

Hoc cedente rego, meque cadente regit.

The Escorial monks were at a great loss where to place Philip V's corpse in the Pantheon, as he had reigned both before and after his son. See *Memoires Instructifs*, Tom. II. p. 112. They might have saved themselves this anxiety, that prince being interred at St. Ildephonso.

those of Castile: but Philip II. finding that city too small, made choice of Madrid, on account of its advantageous situation, its healthy air, and conveniency for hunting; and it has continued such ever since (q). The Spaniards prefer Madrid, and its court, to all the cities and courts in the world*: it has indeed fine streets and fountains, but the former are withal very filthy (r), the dirt of the houses being continually thrown into them; though dispositions are now in hand for removing this inconveniency †.

The principal royal seats are Buen-Retiro, Aranjuez, Casa del Campo, La Flo-

(q) Ferreras, in the year 1560.

* Alphonso Niunnez de Castro has wrote a book on this pre-eminence, with the title of Solo Madrid es Corte, y el Cortesano de Madrid. Vid. Gerh. Ern. De Franckenau. Biblioth. Hispan. Hist. Geneal. Herald. p. 12. n. 36.

(r) Memoires Instructifs, Tom. II. p. 60, 62.

† An Italian has made a sonnet on Madrid, which gives no very advantageous idea of that city, or the manner of living there.

Stemprato cielo, ambiziose genti,
Di fangoso lavor tugurii angusti,
Carni ritrose a denti, ingrati a gusti,
Pesci guasti, agri frutti, ogli fetenti,
Di stercolato humor Strade correnti,
Stronzi d'ogni color, molli & adusti,
Donne spolate e di — — frusti,
Carche noa men il vis ch'il—d'unguenti.

Di sforzato valor moneta infame,
Usar acqua per vin, per fuoco il Sole,
Tripudiar ne' tempi e mercar Dame,
Ridiculo vestir, mangiar bestiale,
Mori infiniti, Sbirri,
Forman il bel Madrid, villa Reale,
L'Ambasciata di Romolo à Romani, p. 77:

rida,

rida, El Pando, Villa Viciosa, St. Ildefonso, and St. Lorenzo el Real, or the Escorial, as it is commonly called *.

SECT. XXVII.

The great officers of the kingdom of Castile were the chancellor (Chanciller), the constable (Condestable), the admiral (Admirante). But as these were officers of great power, the kings have long since suppressed the substance of them, leaving only the bare title †.

Antient
great-offi-
cers.

SECT. XXVIII.

The king of Spain's household is very considerable and splendid, exceeding most Eu-

Court-offi-
cers.

* This vast and stately building was erected by Philip II. in honour of St. Lawrence ; it is an oblong quadrangle, 280 paces in length, and the breadth a little less. In it is a palace, a convent for 200 monks, and a church. The last has an amazing quantity of gold and silver utensils and ornaments, besides jewels, and gorgeous vestures. Under the great altar of this church is the Pantheon, or Royal Vault, begun by Philip II. continued by Philip III. and finished by Philip IV. It is only the kings, and those queens who have borne sons, that are buried in the Pantheon. The other queens, and the infants and infanta's, lie in two vaults under the church. The Escorial is particularly celebrated for its library, in which are a great number of rare Arabic manuscripts ; but, through the ignorance of the monks, this treasure is of little benefit to the public. Mem. Instruct. Tom. II. p. 96—115.

† Thus the archbishop of Toledo styles himself Chancellor of Castile, and the title of Admiral of Castile is hereditary in the house of Henriquez, as that of Constable in the family of Velasco. Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 123, 124.

ropean

ropean courts in the number of officers. The principal are, the lord-almoner (Limosnero Mayor *), the lord-steward of the household, (Mayor domo Mayor), the lord-chamberlain (Sumiller de Corps) the master of the horse (Cavallerizo Mayor), the great-falconer (Halcohero Mayor), and the great-huntsman (Montero Mayor). But the last two offices are generally filled by one person (s).

S E C T. XXIX.

Order of
the Golden-
Fleece.

An additional splendor to the Spanish court, is the ancient and celebrated order of the Golden-Fleece, instituted in the year 1431, by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy (t). The emperor Charles V. as heir to the Burgundian dominions, transferred the grand-mastership of this order into Spain, and from him the succeeding kings inherited it. On the decease of Charles II. the two kings Philip V. and Charles III. afterwards emperor of Germany by the name of Charles VI. claimed

* This dignity was once annexed to the archbishoprick of Compostella; but since the year 1572, the Patriarch of the Indies is always lord-almoner. Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 101.

(s) Concerning all these offices, see Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 100—122. And for the lower court employments, p. 142, to 247.

(t) See the rules of this order in Leibnitz, Cod. J. G. Diplom. Mantissa II. p. 17, &c.

the

the sovereignty of this order, and remained in possession, without taking any notice of it in the peace concluded between them at Vienna, in the year 1725. But Charles VI. dying, his daughter Maria Teresa queen of Hungary and Bohemia, conferred the grand-mastership on her husband the great duke of Tuscany, afterwards emperor by the name of Francis I. Philip V. king of Spain, conceiving that the grand-mastership now belonged solely to him, opposed that resignation (*u*); and afterwards, at the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, asserted his exclusive right by a solemn manifesto; but the like was also done by the empress-queen (*x*).

S E C T. XXX.

Christianity was preached very early in Spain, and, according to the common notion of the Spaniards, by the Apostle James the Elder himself *. The Goths, who re-

State of religion in Spain.

(*u*) Vid. Illustr. Ayreni Dissert. de magno Magisterio Equestris Ordinis Aurei Velleris Burgundo-Austriaco feminio-masculino, Sect. III. §. 11, 15.

(*x*) Recueil Historiques d'Actes, Negotiations, &c. par M. Roussier, Tom. XX. p. 220, 223.

* This is likewise zealously maintained by Ferreras, in his first volume; though Baronius himself denies it, or at least looks upon it as very doubtful. Mariana speaks somewhat ambiguously concerning both the Apostle James's preaching, and, his being buried in Spain, Book IV. c. ii. Lib. VII. c. xv. for which some, however, are much displeased with him.

ceived

ceived their first knowledge of the Faith from Arian teachers, brought their errors into Spain, and extremely molested the orthodox Christians; till at length, king Recared became a convert to the catholic faith, on which the Arians were, in their turn, persecuted, and totally suppressed. The Spaniards have ever since shewn a singular zeal for the tenets of the Romish church; and no people pay a more blind obedience and submissive reverence to the papal see. They expend great sums on devout institutions and donations, as appears from the amazing riches of their churches (y). But this is their greatest merit with regard to religion; for, besides their superficial knowledge of it, their worship has a strange mixture of levity and ridicule. The absurd paintings and decorations in the churches, the indecent salutations in their religious processions, the gorgeous attire of the images of the saints, and particularly of the Blessed Virgin, whom they stile the Mother of God (z), and worship rather more than her Son (a); displease the very Catholics themselves of other countries.

(y) Mem. Instruct. Tom. II. p. 71, 72.

(z) Mem. de Montgon. Tom. II. p. 275, 276. Tom. VII. p. 196, 197.

(a) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 36, &c.

If these be gross offences against decency, the like may very well be said of the verses and songs made by many Spanish rhymers on religious subjects, being often stuffed with such ridiculous conceits as would raise a smile even in the most phlegmatic reader *.

* Little copies of verses called Villancicos, are made for the festivals, and sung in churches. The contents are sometimes, like the expression, extremely ridiculous, as two instances will shew, though taken from a versifier, who, for this kind of poesy, is in high repute among his countrymen. In one, the mayor of Bethlehem, on the nativity of Christ, summons the taylor to clothe the naked Saviour. Among other lines are these:

Xabon pidio un Sastre al Ninno
Para cortale una gala;
Pues non vendra sin Xabon
El, que viene aquitar manchas.

"A taylor required soap of the child to make him a holiday-coat, as certainly he who came to take out stains, would not come without soap."

In another madrigal, or ballad on the festival of the Epiphany, the trees celebrate a masquerade in honour of the infant Jesus. They all act their parts with a high glee.

El Almendro, que su fruta
En las colaciones gasta
Al Rey le Dió Almendras dulces,
Y al demonio muy amargas.
La Vid alegrò la Fiesta,
Y negan dole la entrada,
Dixo a la puerta un Tudesco:
Entre, que mas vale que agua.

"The almond-tree, which plentifully distributes its fruit at collations, to the king gave sweet almonds, but to the devil the bitterest it had. The vine was for enlivening the feast; and on its being denied admittance, a German called out, "Let him in, by all means, it is much better than water."

SECT.

S E C T. XXXI.

Archbishops
and bishops.

The upper clergy in Spain consist of eight archbishops and forty-five bishops. The archbishops are,

I. The archbishop of Toledo, who, besides being stiled primate of Spain, bears the title of chancellor of Castile, and counsellor of state. His diocese is the largest, and his income not less than 300,000 ducats a year. His suffragans are, 1. Carthagena. 2. Cordova. 3. Cuenza. 4. Sigüenza. 5. Jaen. 6. Segovia. 7. Osma. 8. Valladolid.

II. The archbishop of Seville. His suffragans, are, 1. Malaga. 2. Cadiz. 3. Canaria. 4. Ceuta.

III. The archbishop of Santjago, to whom are subordinate the bishops of, 1. Sa-

In a panegyrick on St. Francis, the author enumerates the many miracles performed by him; and among others, is the following,

Sanó mil endemoniadas
Sin saber, si avia librado
Al diablo de las mugeres,
O à las mugeres del diablo.
Y al conjurarlas
Vió como eran las feas
Endemoniadas.

"A thousand female demons he cured, but without knowing whether he had driven the devil out of the women, or women out of the devil; and at the conjuration he saw that the ugly were possessed."

Obras Poéticas Posthumas de Maestro Don Manuel De Leon Marchante, p. 1, 2, 11, 77.

lamanca.

lamanca. 2. Tuy. 3. Avila. 4. Coria.
5. Plasencia. 6. Astorga. 7. Zamora.
8. Orense. 9. Badajoz. 10. Mondonedo.
11. Lugo. 12. Ciudad-Rodrigo.

IV. The archbishop of Granada, who has under him, 1. Guadix. 2. Almeria.

V. The archbishop of Burgos, within whose jurisdiction are, 1. Pampeluna. 2. Calahorra. 3. Palencia. 4. St. Andero.

VI. The archbishop of Taragona, whose suffragans are the bishops of, 1. Barcelona. 2. Girona. 3. Lerida. 4. Tortola. 5. Vique. 6. Urgel. 7. Salsona.

VII. The archbishop of Saragossa, within whose diocese are the bishops of, 1. Huesca. 2. Barbastro. 3. Xaca. 4. Taragona. 5. Albaracin. 6. Teruel.

VIII. The archbishop of Valencia, whose suffragans are, 1. Segorbe. 2. Orihuela; and 3. Mallorca (b).

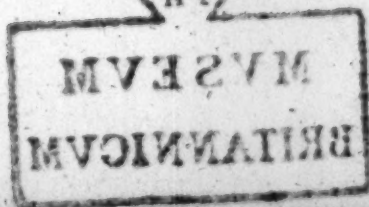
The bishoprics of Oviedo and Leon are immediately subject to the see of Rome (c).

The annual income of all these archbishoprics is computed at 1,363,000 ducats; and that of the chapters of the cathedrals and collegiate churches, is as much (d).

(b) Clarke's Letters concerning the Spanish nation, Letter II. p. 20, 21.

(c) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 379.

(d) Busching's Geography, Part II. p. 123.



In New-Spain are six archbishoprics *, with twenty-eight bishops; and in the Philippine-islands one archbishop, whose see is Manilla, and three subordinate bishops (e).

S E C T. XXXII.

The king
nominates
the archbi-
shops and
bishops.

The disposal of ecclesiastical benefices in Spain, was formerly, for the most part, lodged in the pope, who, on a requisition from the king, appointed archbishops and bishops; and likewise nominated to many inferior dignities and benefices; till by an agreement between the emperor Charles V. and pope Adrian VI. the nomination to the archbishoprics and bishoprics was yielded up to the king (f). Pope Clement VII. farther granted to the kings of Spain, the right of conferring other ecclesiastical offices and benefices (g). Notwithstanding such cessions, frequent differences arose between

* Of these the principal is that of St. Domingo, in the island of Hispaniola, and the archbishop bears the stile of Patriarch of India.

(e) Clarke, Letter II. p. 42, 23.
(f) Mariana, Book XXVI. c. v. and in the Summary of the History of Spain, anno 1523. Thus the kings recovered their antient right, which rests on the sixth decree of the XIIth council of Toledo. Ferreras, Vol. II. Year 681. Cont. Fern. Vasquii Controvers. Illustr. c. xxii. n. 16. p. 213, et Didaci Covarruvias Oper. Tom. I. p. 440, 441. n. 4, 5, 6.

(g) This bull, which is dated on the 10th of May 1528, is to be found in the Supplement au Corps Universel Diplomat. par M. Roussier, Tom. II. Part. I. p. 169, et suiv.

them



them and the see of Rome, till the year 1753, when by a new convention between Ferdinand VI. and Benedict XIV. the pope reserving to himself some specified lesser dignities and benefices, absolutely gave up all the others to the king, in consideration of a sum of money (*b*).

S E C T. XXXIII.

The power of the pope has always been very great in Spain; and Gregory VII. was for screwing it up to the very highest pitch, requiring of the kings in his time to acknowledge themselves his vassals, and pay him an annual tribute. But this demand, notwithstanding their great obsequiousness and respect towards the see of Rome, they could not digest (*i*). Spain, however, has been the golden mine to the apostolic-chamber, on account of the large sums which are annually remitted to Rome*. Even the pope's nuncio has his particular jurisdiction in ecclesiastical and spiritual matters, which he exercises with great ri-

Great power
in Spain of
the pope
and his le-
gates.

(*b*) See Europe's New Fame, Part CLXXXIX. p. 691, 692.

(*i*) Ferreras, in the years 1074, 1075.

* These amount to 132,000 scudi d'oro, which make fifty thousand pounds sterling. Table au de la Cour de Rome, p. 111.

gour * ; and would stretch it beyond all bounds, did not the council of Castile sometimes take the liberty to reduce him to order (k). This assembly maintains the rights of the sovereign and the state, against the invasions of that foreign power ; and in many cases, the pope's bulls and briefs are of no force, till they have undergone the examination of the royal tribunals (l).

S E C T. XXXIV.

Inquisition,
its basis.

The chief foundation of the papacy and the papal power in Spain is the inquisition, which queen Isabella introduced into Castile, and her husband Ferdinand the Catholic into Arragon. The first court of inquisition was held at Seville, towards the end of the year 1480, at the instigation of the archbishop of that city, cardinal Mendoza ; for great numbers of the new converted Jews

* The persons who, by order of king Charles II. carried off the famous Valenzuela, his mother's favourite, out of the convent in the Escorial, were excommunicated for violating that sanctuary, and the exemption of ecclesiastical persons. And though there were among them persons of the first rank, they were obliged to make their appearance with halts about their necks, and in their shirts, before the nuncio Molini, who, at their absolution, gave them some strokes with a wand. *Mem. de la Cour d'Esp. Part. I. p. 66.*

(k) Domenico Zanetornato nella relatione della Corte di Spagna, p. 68, 69.

(l) Didac. Covarruvias in *Oper. Tom. II. Pract. Quæst. c. 35. p. 513.*

and

and Moors relapsing into their former errors, he proposed such a course, as the best means to prevent this evil (*m*). A like court was appointed in the year 1483, in Castile and Leon, on the same account. Thomas de Torquemada, a Dominican, was the first inquisitor-general (*n*); and during the term of his office, caused 2000 people to be burnt (*o*). There are at present in the Spanish monarchy eighteen courts of inquisition, namely, at Seville, Toledo, Granada, Cordova, Cuenza, Valladolid, Murcia Ellereña, Logrono, Santjago, Saragossa, Valencia, Barcelona, Majorca, the Canary-islands, Mexico, Carthagena, and Lima (*p*). The supreme court of inquisition is at Madrid; and its president, besides the title of Inquisitor-general, is likewise stiled the pope's vicar. He is nominated by the king, confirmed by the pope, and, in other respects totally independent (*q*). This supreme court of inquisition, besides the president, consists of six counsellors, called apostolic inquisitors, a fiscal, a pri-

(*m*) Ferreras, Vol. VII. p. 578, 579, 590.

(*n*) Ibid. p. 632.

(*o*) Mariana, Book XXIV. c. xvii. Others say, that in fourteen years he brought above 100,000 persons to a trial, of whom 6000 were burnt. See Mr. Estor's Observations on the Civil and Ecclesiastical Power, cap. xvii. p. 391.

(*p*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 365.

(*q*) Ibid. p. 364.

vate secretary, two other secretaries, a receiver, two referendaries, four serjeants or messengers, a solicitor, and several qualificators, or law-counsellors; among whom, by an order of Philip III. in 1618; one must be a Dominican friar (*r*). The other courts of inquisition have only three inquisitors, two clerks, a messenger, a receiver, and a certain number of qualificators and law-counsellors (*s*). All these officers, high and low, must be men of irreproachable morals, and of pure blood; making proof that none of their ancestors were either heretics, Jews or Moors (*t*). The inquisition, besides these officers, has not less than 20,000 familiars, as they are called, dispersed over the whole kingdom, and whose chief business is to apprehend those against whom an information lies (*u*). The proceedings of this tremendous court are singular, and contradictory to the common forms of law; the person informed against being imprisoned on a bare information, without seeing or knowing his accuser, or the witnesses

(*r*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 384.

(*s*) Ibid. p. 385.

(*t*) Vayrac, *là même*, *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Inquisitions*, Tom. I. p. 141.

(*u*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 387. The origin of these familiars is to be found in the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Portuguese History*, in the year 1723, p. 384—390.

who

who depose against him (x). When the enquiry is gone through, sentence is pronounced on the prisoners; and formerly it used to be accompanied with striking solemnities *. The crimes within the cognizance of the inquisition, are heresy, Judaism, Mahometanism, sorcery, sodomy, and polygamy. The punishments are various. Jews obstinately refusing to embrace Christianity, are burned alive; they who are convicted of heresy or infidelity, and will not acknowledge it, or profess themselves Catholic Christians, are strangled (y). The possessions of the persons condemned, are confiscated; and for a person to have been in the inquisition, is an indelible ignominy to all his descendants (z).

(x) Mariana, Book XXIV. c. xvii.

* Namely, in those Autos da Fé, at which the king and court assisted; these were attended with pompous processions and exhibitions, of which a description is to be found in the Ceremonial d'Espagne, Liv. I. c. iv. §. 19. in the Ceremonial Diplomatique de Mr. Rouffet, Tom. II. p. 219, et suiv. These dismal solemnities, at first very common in Spain, are not at present so often repeated. From the year 1632, when king Philip IV. permitted an Auto da Fé to be held, no other was seen till 1680, when the nuptials of Charles II. were celebrated by a like sanguinary scene. *Mémoires pour servir à l'Hist. des Inquisitions*, Tom. I. p. 199. Two were held under Philip V. in 1720, and 1721; and under Lewis I. in the year 1724, on the occasion of his accession to the throne. *Desormeaux*, Tom. V. p. 367, 370, 384.

(y) See *Noticias reconditas del Procedimiento de las Inquisiciones de España y Portugal*. Part I. p. 73.

(z) Mariana concludes his account of the erection of the inquisition with these words: "Præsens remedium adversus

S E C T. XXXV.

Great number of the clergy.

By such violent procedures is the Catholic religion in Spain sufficiently secured against all innovations; and the numerous clergy are a farther support to it. These, amidst the depopulation of the kingdom, have been continually increasing, new foundations being frequently made for them; and their present number is computed at 250,000 seculars and regulars (*a*). The greater part of these live in convents, which in Spain are very numerous; there being 2146 monasteries, and 1023 nunneries (*b*).

S E C T. XXXVI.

Religious orders of knight-hood.

The continual wars against the Moors gave rise in Castile and Leon, to the three religious orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara. Their chief vow was to fight against the infidels. The first adopted the rule of St. Austin, and the two others that of the Cistercians (*c*). But all this has been pretty much altered by length of time.

impudentia mala, quibus aliæ provinciæ exagitantur, cælo datum; nam humano consilio adversus tanta pericula satis caveri non potuit."

(*a*) Voyez Don Geronymo De Ustariz dans la Theorie et Pratique du Commerce & de la Marine, ch. xviii. p. 85.

(*b*) Busching's Geography, Part II. p. 123.

(*c*) Helyot's History of Religious and Secular Orders, Vol. II. c. xl, Vol. VI. c. xlv.

James

James II. king of Arragon, after suppressing the order of the knights Templars, founded, out of their effects, a new order, which received its name from the city of Montesa, in the kingdom of Valencia, as its residence (*d*).

But this never attained to that consideration and opulence, as the three beforementioned orders of St. Jago, Calatrava, and Alcantara, which acquired such possessions and revenues, that their grand-masters, being absolutely independent of all jurisdiction, became formidable even to the kings themselves. On this account, Ferdinand the Catholic prevailed on pope Innocent VIII. to invest him with the grand-mastership of those three orders during his life; pope Alexander VI. afterwards extended this right to queen Isabella, in case she should survive the king; and lastly, pope Adrian VI. to gratify the emperor Charles V. annexed the three grand-masterships to the throne (*e*).

Besides the above four orders, the knights of St. John or Malta are possessed of such revenues and estates in Spain, as yield them

(*d*) Mariana, Lib. XV. cap. xvi.

(*e*) Ibid. Lib. XXVI. c. v. and in the Sumario de la Historia d' Espana, al anno 1523.

near sixty thousand pounds sterling per annum (*f*).

S E C T. XXXVII.

State of the
sciences in
Spain.

By the number of universities, literature and the sciences should be very common, and flourish greatly in Spain. It has no less than twenty-two: Salamanca, Valladolid, Sigüenza, Toledo, Avila, Alcalá de Henares, Sevilla, Granada, Baeza, Ossana, Huesca, Saragossa, Valencia, Gandia, Orizuela, Lerida, Tortosa, Terragona, St. Jago de Compostella, Onnate, Oviedo, Pampe-lona (*g*). Others raise them to thirty, adding Osma, Oropesa, Murcia, Barcelona, Girona, Luchenite, Hirache, Estolla (*h*).

The principal are Salamanca, Alcalá de Henares, and Valladolid. The first is said to have seventy-two professors (*i*).

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Academies
of sciences.

Several academies of polite literature and sciences, were likewise founded in Spain

(*f*) Busching's Geography, Part II. p. 140.

(*g*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 395, 397.

(*h*) Noticias de Portugal, por Manoel Severim de Faria, p. 207—223; though he himself allows that some of them are only colleges. Vayrac, p. 396, places Palencia likewise among the universities; but Faria, p. 207, remarks, that this never was a real university, nor, as some would have it, removed to Salamanca.

(*i*) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 396.

under

under the reign of Philip V (*k*). In Madrid is, 1. La Real Academia Esppannola, the object of which is the improvement of the Spanish language *. 2. La Real Academia de la Historia; and 3. La Real Academia Medica. Seville, Valencia, and Barcelona, have academies of polite literature, and Valladolid an academy of geography.

S E C T. XXXIX.

The Spaniards are by their penetrating and comprehensive genius qualified for sciences of all kinds, and particularly for poetry, of which they have given eminent instances, even in the time of the Romans. Seneca, Lucan, Silius Italicus, Martial, Prudentius, and other poets, were natives of Spain. Modern times have likewise produced many among them, who have written in Spanish, and distinguished themselves in every species of poetry. The characteristic of their works is wit and sublimity; but affecting the sublime rather in the expression than in the subject, they not sel-

Spanish poets.

(*k*) Deformeaux, Tom. V. p. 200—328, is very lavish of his encomiums on king Philip V. though it does not appear that he had immediately any great share in those foundations.

* This academy, which is constituted from the model of the French, and consists of twenty-four members, was founded in 1713, by the duke of Escalona. It has published an excellent Spanish Dictionary of six folio volumes.

dom run into the turgid and unnatural. The most celebrated modern poets are Garcilasso de la Vega, don Diego Hurtado de Mendoza, don Luis de Gongora, don Alonzo de Ercilla, Lopez de Vega, don Francisco de Quevedo, don Francisco de Borja, prince Squillace, don Manuel de Leon Marchante, &c.

S E C T. XL.

Philosophy.

The dread of the inquisition lays the literati in Spain under a painful restraint; so that they dare not always venture to make known their real thoughts, but must take up with writing and teaching even as their forefathers wrote and taught (*1*). To this check it is owing, that the school-philosophy has so long stood its ground in Spain; as to disturb its authority*, would be extremely dangerous.

S E C T. XLI.

Divinity.

Divinity in Spain shares the same fate with philosophy; nay, to advance any thing

(*1*) *Memoires Instructifs*, Tom. II. p. 53, 54, 114, 116.

* John Wendlinger, a Jesuit of Bohemia, has, however, ventured to assert literary freedom; he is the king's geographer and historian for the two Indies, and has instructed Charles III's sons in mathematicks, history, geography, and the German language. He is said to have published a system of the Wolfian philosophy in Spanish.

contrary to the doctrines of the fathers, would rather be attended with worse consequences, as the inquisition would not overlook the least innovation even in the most dignified ecclesiastic; which, among others, Bartholemew de Carranza, archbishop of Toledo, experienced. They stick to the school-doctrines of their fathers, and little concern themselves about the learned languages, or the explanation of the sacred writings, applying themselves to casuistical divinity, in which they are very expert, and which likewise is in some measure necessary to confessors (*m*).

C H A P. XLII.

The number of Spanish lawyers is very ^{Lawyers,} extraordinary: most of them have written on the Roman and canon law, and their works were formerly in such esteem, that foreign countries printed many editions of them. The principal are Anthony Gomez, and his grandson Diego Gomez; Diego and Anthony de Covarruvias, Ferdinand Vasquez, Menchaca, Anton Augustinus, Emanuel Gonzales Telez, Anthony Perez, John de Solorzano Pereira, Gregory de Mayans, and Sisear.

(*m*) Clarke's Letters concerning the Spanish Nation, Letter IV. p. 52.

S E C T. XLIII.

Phyſick.

In phyſick and ſurgery the Spaniards are far inferior to their neighbours the French, and other European nations. One proof of the unſkilfulneſs of their ſurgeons is the venereal diſtemper, with which the country is ſaid to be over-run; an effectual method of cure being beyond their ſkill. The part of medicine moſt ſtudied here is botany (*n*); and king Ferdinand VI. being a great lover of natural hiſtory, founded a phyſic-garden at Madrid *.

S E C T. XLIV.

Painting,
ſculpture,
and archi-
tecture.

The ſame king was pleaſed likewise to take painting, ſculpture, and architecture, under his protection, and founded an academy in Madrid for the advancement of thoſe arts.

S E C T. XLV.

Printing
and engrav-
ing.

That the Spaniards have made no great improvement in printing and engraving, is

(*n*) Clarke's Letters concerning the Spaniſh Nation, Letter IV. Part II. p. 55.

* Accounts of the Life and Writings of learned Spaniards are found in the following works.

D. Nicolai Antonii Bibliotheca Hiſpana Vetus, ſeu Hiſpanorum qui ab Octavii Auguſti imperio uſque ad annum MD. floruerunt, notitia. 2 Tom. Romæ 1696. fol.

Ejuſdem Bibliotheca Hiſpana, ſeu Hiſpanorum qui poſt annum MD. floruerunt, notitia. 2 Tomi. Romæ, 1672. fol.

evi-

evident from their books, especially those published in the preceding and the sixteenth century. In the present, they have something mended their hands, and but something. This induced Charles III. to found a printing academy at Madrid, in which youth sdesigned for that art, are instructed in the languages and other requisites at the king's expence.

S E C T. XLVI.

Amidst the different revolutions in the ^{Laws.} Spanish monarchy, the laws must likewise be supposed to have undergone several alterations. The Romans with their dominion introduced their laws. The Visigoths at first followed their old customs, till their king Eric gave them written laws (*o*). Of these and the edicts of the succeeding princes, and the decrees of councils, was composed under king Sisenand, or more probably, under Egiza, the Fuero Juzgo, or Forum Judicum (*p*). Ferdinand III. and

(*o*) See Mascou's History of the Germans, Vol. I. B. X. p. 490.

(*p*) Mariana, Lib. VI. cap. v. These laws were first published by Peter Pithoeus, under the title of Codex Legum Wisigothorum, Libri XII. (Parisii, 1759. fol.) And afterwards, by Alphonso de Villadieco, with a Spanish Comment. (Madrid, 1600, fol.) Vid. Buderii Biblioth. Jur. Selecta, c. vi. §. 2. They are likewise to be found in Fred. Lindenbrogii, Codex LL. Antiquarum, and in Petr. Georgisch Corpore Jur. Germ. Antiqui.

Alphonso X. kings of Castile, ordered a new code to be made, which, in the year 1348, king Alphonso XI. published under the title of *Las Siete Partidas* (*q*). Ferdinand the Catholic employed Alphonso Diaz de Montalvo to digest into one body all the royal ordinances; and these he published under the title of *El Ordenamiento Real* (*r*). Under the same king, in the year 1505, were made public the *Leyes de Toro*, so called from their being passed into laws at the diet of Toro (*s*). Lastly, Philip II. had a new code made by a sett of lawyers; and it was published by the title of *Nueva Recompilacion de las Leyes de Estos Reynos* (*t*): this collection has been augmented by several of his successors (*u*).

(*q*) Vid. *Leyes de Toro*, pr. These *Siete Partidas* are, for the most part, translated from the Roman and Canon law into that of Castile. Didac. Covarruvias, *Var. Resol. Lib. I. ch. xiv. n. 5.* in *Operib. Tom. II. p. 61.* Several Spanish lawyers, and among others, Gregory Lopez, have written comments on them. Buder. in *Biblioth. Jur. Sel. cap. vi. §. 2.*

(*r*) Buder. *L. C. §. 3.* The said Montalvo has to this *Ordenamiento Real*, added illustrations and comments.

(*s*) Mariana, *Lib. XXVIII. cap. xiii.* Anthony Gomez, and his grandson Diego Gomez, have illustrated the *Leyes de Toro* with remarks.

(*t*) Buder, *L. C. §. 3.*

(*u*) Vid. *Leyes de Toro. pr. & Anton. Gomezii Commentar. ad illas, 5.* A compleat account of all the Spanish law is to be met with in Gerh. Ern. de Franckenau. *Sacr. Themidis Hispanæ Arcanis. Hannoveræ 1703 4.*

S E C T. XLVIII.

The judges or chief magistrates in the ^{Lówer Courts,} Ciudades, or large cities, are called Corregidores, in some Alcaldes mayores, and their assessors have the title of Regidores. In the villas or towns, the judges are called Alcaldes or Bayles. These magistrates superintend not only the administration of justice, but likewise that of the police. The Corregidore cannot be a native of the place which is the seat of his office; but the Regidore must absolutely be such (x).

S E C T. XLIX.

The king's court has likewise a particular tribunal, with a president, eight alcaldes, a fiscal, two referendaries, four clerks, ^{Court of justice and police in the king's palace.} and four serjeants, or messengers. These alcaldes are termed Alcaldes de Corte; and have both the civil and criminal jurisdiction within the verge of the court, which extends to the distance of twenty miles, and over those who attend his majesty in any of his journies (y).

Cases appertaining to the police come under the cognizance of twelve alcaldes, each having his department, which he

(x) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 272, 274.

(y) Ibid. p. 266, 267.

some-

sometimes visits, attended by his clerk and serjeant, for the preservation of good order (z).

S E C T. L.

Upper
Courts.

There are, besides, in the provinces of Spain certain courts of justice, to which lie appeals from the above mentioned city and town judges, and which likewise try several cases in the first instance. These courts are, 1. The royal chancery (Chancilleria Real) at Valladolid; and 2. at Granada; each having a president, and sixteen counsellors, called oydores, or auditors, two or three judges in criminal causes, a fiscal, and other officers (a). In the kingdom of Navarre is, 3. The royal council, (Consejo Real de Navarra) in which the viceroy presides, when so disposed. This tribunal consists of a regent, six oydores, four alcaldes, and other inferior officers (b). Next to these are various courts, called Audiencias; namely, 4. Audiencias Real de la Corunna. 5. De Sevilla. 6. D'Oviedo. 7. De Saragossa. 8. De Valencia. 9. De Barcelona. 10. De Mallorca. The president of these courts is stiled regent, and

(z) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 269.

(a) Ibid. p. 256, 257, &c.

(b) Ibid. p. 250.

the assessors Alcaldes Mayores. In civil cases, where the sum exceeds ten thousand maravedis; and in criminal matters, touching life, or corporal punishment, or banishment for ten years, an appeal has been made from their sentence.

Lastly, 11. There is also an Audiencia in the Canary-islands; and at Cadiz is the Audiencia de la Contractacion de las Indias. Spanish America has twelve Audiencias (c).

S E C T. LI.

Spain was formerly under a necessity of ^{Land-}keeping on foot a very large military force, ^{forces,} on account of its many dependencies in Europe; but the far greater part being dismembered from it at the treaty of Utrecht, that necessity ceased: yet by reason of the several wars, both in Italy and Africa, the Spanish military establishment has continued still very considerable. The Spaniards, both cavalry and infantry, are excellent soldiers (d), and still maintain all the ancient glory of their martial forefathers.

In the year 1760, the Spanish forces consisted of the following troops.

(c) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 270, 271.

(d) Ibid. Tom. I. p. 35.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

I. INFANTRY.

Thirty-two Spanish regiments, which made seventy-eight battalions, among which were six battalions of Spanish, and six battalions of Walloon guards, with two battalions of matrosses, and eight battalions of marines:

Total		Men.	
		Battal.	
2	Italian regiments	4	2120
3	Walloon	6	3180
3	Irish	6	3180
3	Swiss	6	4440
33	Militia	33	23100
4	Invalids	8	4800
			87696

2. CAVALRY.

Twenty-two regiments, containing forty-six squadrons, and in which are included the horse-guards } 6114

3. DRAGOONS.

10 Regiments, 20 Squadrons — 2560

4. INDEPENDANT COMPANIES.

15 — — — 2005

(e) In all

98375

(d) Clarke's Letters, Number XII. p. 211, 214.

S E C T. LII.

Nature itself has secured Spain against France by the Pyrenean mountains; and those parts which are easiest of access, have several strong fortifications, as St. Sebastian, Fuentarabia, Pampelona, Roses, Girona, &c. On the frontiers of Portugal are Tuy, Xamora, Ciudad Roderigo, Valenza de Alcantara, Badajoz, and others.

S E C T. LIII.

The situation of Spain, the discovery of the New World, the distance of its European dependencies, gradually produced a navy, which at length became very considerable, and under Philip II. was, after the conquest of Portugal, the most powerful in Europe. But since the miscarriage of its expedition against England in 1588, it has continually declined, and under Charles II. was at a very low ebb. Philip V. and his successors attending to the restoration of it, in the year 1760 it consisted of

Ships of the line	—	—	47
Frigates	—	—	21
Chebecs	—	—	14
Packet-boats	—	—	4
Bomb-ketches	—	—	7

Q 2.

which

which required 4016 guns, 712 gunners, 6870 marines, and 45960 seamen (*f*).

The stations for the men of war are, Cadiz, Corunna, Ferrol, and Carthagena; the harbours of which, together with those of Barcelona and Malaga, are strongly fortified.

S E C T. LIV.

Coins.

The Spaniards reckon by hundreds, thousands, and millions (*cuentos*) of maravedis; in larger sums, by reals, dollars, ducats, and doubloons.

2 Maravedis make 1 ochavo.

4 Maravedis make 1 quarto.

1 Real = $8\frac{1}{2}$ quartos = 17 ochavos = 34 maravedis.

1 Peso, or piece of eight, = 8 reales = 272 maravedis.

1 Ducado = 11 reales = 374 maravedis*.

1 Doubloon or pistole = 4 pesos = 32 reales = 1088 maravedis.

By these appellations are understood either silver (*moneda de plata*), or (*moneda de velon*) copper-money. The former is about $88\frac{3}{17}$ per Cent. better than the latter; so that the proportion between these two coins is as follows:

(*f*) Clarke's Letters, XII. p. 219, 222:

* That is in trade, but in exchange the ducat is equal to 275 maravedis.

17 Reales

17 Reales de plata = 32 reales de velon.

1 Real de plata = 64 maravedis de velon.

1 Peso de plata = 15 reales, 2 maravedis de velon.

1 Ducado de plata = 20 reales, 24 maravedis de velon *.

1 Doubloon de plata = 60 reales, 8 maravedis de velon.

But these are only ideal coins, the real being minted on quite another standard, and are as follow.

1. In G O L D.

Doubloons (pistoles) = 40 reales de plata = 75 reales, 10 maravedis de velon.

Double doubloons = 80 reales de plata = 150 reales, 20 maravedis de velon.

Quadruple doubloons = 160 reales de plata = 301 reales, 6 maravedis de velon.

Half doubloons, or escudos de oro = 20 reales de plata = 37 reales, 22 maravedis de velon.

Pesos fuertes de oro = 11 reales, 6 maravedis de plata = 20 reales de velon.

* In trade: in exchange the ducado de plata fetches 20 reales, $25\frac{1}{2}$ maravedis de velon.

2. In SILVER.

Pesos fuertes = 11 reales, 6 maravedis de plata = 20 reales de velon. These are likewise called piaftres.

Half pesos fuertes = 5 reales, 20 maravedis de plata = 10 reales de velon. These are commonly called escudos de velon.

Quarter pesos fuertes = 2 reales, 27 maravedis de plata = 5 reales de velon.

Reales fuertes = 1 real, $13\frac{1}{2}$ maravedis de plata, 2 reales, 17 maravedis de velon.

Half reales fuertes = $23\frac{3}{4}$ maravedis de plata = 1 real, $8\frac{1}{2}$ maravedis de velon.

There are besides :

Reales de Sevilla = 1 real, 4 maravedis de plata = 2 reales de velon.

Double = 2 reales, 8 maravedis de plata = 4 reales de velon.

Half = 19 maravedis de plata = 1 real de velon.

3. In COPPER,

Quartos = 4 maravedis.

Double = 8 maravedis.

Ochavos = 2 maravedis.

Single maravedis and blancas = half a maravedi.

The

The Spanish coinage or specie suffered great alterations by raising the money. The most detrimental was that of Philip III. doubling the current worth of copper-money: foreigners coined vast quantities, and filled the whole kingdom with them, at the same time draining it of its gold and silver (*g*); since which, this inconveniency has remained, with this farther grievance, that most payments are made in copper-money (*h*).

S E C T. LV.

A late writer says, that the revenue of Philip II. amounted to thirty millions of ducats (*i*). If so, it must have been extremely diminished under his successors, yielding only seven or eight millions of French livres in the last years of Charles II (*k*). The president Orry, in the year 1714, raised the royal revenue to forty millions of French livres, and higher; but by such means as rendered him detestable to the whole Spanish nation (*l*). In the year 1722,

(*g*) Don Diego de Saavedra Faxardo *Idea de un Principe Politico Christiano*, Empresa LXIX. p. 639.

(*h*) Ustariz's *Theory and Practice of Commerce, and the Marine*, ch. civ. p. 504.

(*i*) Voltaire's *Univ. Hist.* Tom. V. c. iv.

(*k*) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 304.

(*l*) *Ibid.* 307.

it amounted to 23,510,154 escudos de velon (*m*); and since 1747, the total has been about 27,246,302 escudos de velon (*n*). The taxes and duties from whence this revenue arises, are extremely numerous, and divided into general and provincial contributions: Rentas Generales y Provinciales.

To the former belong,

1. Some regalia, as the stamp-paper, the post and coinage.

2. The monopoly of salt, tobacco, quicksilver, and lead.

3. The duties of 15 per Cent. on all imports and exports; and these are levied under different denominations and in different manners.

4. The grand-masterships of the three religious orders of knighthood; the horsetax paid by them; and the priorate of St. John.

5. The taxes on the clergy, and the tenths of the income of their possessions, levied by the king with the pope's consent; likewise the contribution paid by the church for supporting the military hospitals in time of war.

(*m*) Ustariz, ch. xix. p. 93, 94.

(*n*) Considerations sur les Finances d'Espagne, p. 8. in Vol. II. of the Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne.

6. The

6. The Croisade-bull, by virtue of which some kinds of indulgences, and certain ecclesiastical exemptions, are sold for the king's benefit.

7. The spear-tax, (Servicio de las Lancas) paid by the upper nobility, in lieu of the twenty-four spearmen, whom they were formerly to provide.

8. The pension tax (Media Annata).

9. The Madrid excise (Effetos y Sifas de Madrid).

10. The cattle-tax, (Montazgo de los Ganados) raised on the cattle put to pasture.

11. The meadow tax.

12. The excise of the kingdom of Navarre.

13. Revenues from Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, and Majorca *.

14. The quartering-money, paid by these countries and some others.

15. Tax on negroes imported into the Spanish colonies in America (Assiento de los Negros).

16. West-India revenues, as the Croisade-bull, and the taxes on the clergy, the

* Into these countries, since their union with Castile, have likewise been introduced the monopoly of salt and snuff, the stamp duty, and customs; before, the kings had only some tithes, and what was called the patrimonial incomes. Ustariz, ch. xix. p. 92.

fifths of the profits of mines, the profit from the quicksilver exported thither.

17. Profits on the West-India trade, to which belong the indulto, or licence for the galleons and register-ships, the freight of them, the duties, &c. (o).

The provincial contributions are levied only in Castile, which in this respect is divided into twenty-two provinces. 1. Burgos. 2. Leon. 3. Galicia. 4. Zamora. 5. Toro. 6. Palencia. 7. Valladolid. 8. Avila. 9. Soria. 10. Salamanca. 11. Segovia. 12. Murcia. 13. Madrid. 14. Toledo. 15. Guadalaxara. 16. Cuenza. 17. Extremadura. 18. Seville. 19. Cordova. 20. Granada. 21. Jaen. 22. La Mancha*.

In these provincial contributions are included,

1. The tenth penny of all things bought or exchanged (Alcavala)†, and this has been gradually increased to four additional pennies per Cent.

(o) Ustariz, ch. xix. where likewise is to be found the neat produce and total of all these several payments.

* Ustariz, ch. cv. p. 508-511, reckons only the first twenty-one provinces; but in the Table, p. 512, 573, where he sets down the produce of the provincial contributions, according to the new farm, there are twenty-two, and among them La Mancha.

† This tax is of a very ancient standing: the twentieth penny was granted to king Alphonso XI. in the year 1341, for the war against the Moors. Under Henry II. the states of Castile raised it to the tenth penny, which has been paid ever since. Mariana, Lib. XVI. chap. ix. XVII. chap. viii.

2. The

2. The twenty-four million-tax, of which four and a half has been laid on salt, and the remaining nineteen and a half, on wine and vinegar, oil and flesh.

3. An impost of four maravedis on each arroba (about three gallons English) of wine (*el fiel medidor*).

4. A duty of 4 reals 3 quarters, per hearth, payable by those who are not noble (*Servicio ordinario y extraordinario*).

5. Duty on brandy, which is made personal since the king gave up the monopoly of brandy.

6. Duty on soap, snow, cards, and other little matters (*p*).

The provincial taxes are all farmed, whereas the general are under administration, and accounted for (*q*).

The provincial contributions being all levied from the necessaries of life, prove such a heavy load to the commonalty, that some wise financiers have lately advised an alteration in those impositions (*r*).

A considerable part of the provincial contributions is assigned to the creditors of the crown as interest, and not a little has been given away to private persons (*s*).

(*p*) Concerning these imposts, see *Considerations sur les Finances d'Espagne*, p. 32, & suiv.

(*q*) *Ustariz*, ch. xix. p. 89.

(*r*) *Considerations sur les Finances d'Espagne*, p. 43, 44.

(*s*) *Voyez Ustariz*, ch. xix. p. 92.

S E C T. LVI.

Expences
and debts of
the crown.

The revenue of the crown of Spain, considering its yearly amount, is nothing very considerable: this proceeds from the former abuses and disorders which have long prevailed in the finances, the want of due population, and likewise the low ebb of manufactures and trade; whereas the court, the navy, and army, and the multitude of state and law officers, are articles of prodigious expence*. Besides, the almost continual wars since Charles V. have sunk the kingdom into an abyss of debts, from which it cannot emerge under some centuries of tranquillity and good management, there being debts in arrear of all the kings as far back as Charles V. (t)

S E C T. LVII.

Agriculture neglected in Spain.

Agriculture has been utterly neglected by the Spaniards since the discovery of the New World. Philip III. and Philip IV. endeavoured to promote it by several ordinances in favour of such as would employ

* Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 309, 310, has given an account of the expences of the Spanish court; according to which, the annual amount of them is about 16,592,356 ducats; but he adds, that king Philip very much diminished his expences both in his court and other particulars, and that the annual expence may now but little exceed half that sum.

(t) See the New General History in German, p. 63, 64.

them-

themselves either in tillage or graziery; but they proved without effect (*u*), not so much from the barrenness of the country, as the pride and laziness of the people (*x*), who prefer hunger and penury to an occupation which they conceit to be greatly beneath them.

*Furfureo cum pane domi vescatur egenus,
Sordeat et vacua semper inops que casa,
Non artem exercet, non terram sulcat aratro,
Accinctus gladio nobilis esse studet.
Hinc inculta jacent camporum millia passim,
Atque deest vastis gnavus arator agris* (*y*).

S E C T L V I I I .

Under Charles V. some manufactures in Spain were in a thriving condition. Segovia, Herencia, and some other towns in Castile, grew noted for making cloth; Granada and Andalusia for damasks, sattins, and other silks; Biscay for fire-arms, and Cuenza and other places for paper (*z*): but since the beginning of the seventeenth century, and especially since the expulsion of

State of
Spanish
manufac-
tures.

(*u*) Vayrac, Tom. I. p. 48.

(*x*) Saavedra en la Idea de un Principe Politico Christiano, Empresa LXXI. p. 711.

(*y*) Corn. Kiliani Lusus de Nationib. in Arcanis Dominationis Hispanæ, cap. xxxiv. p. 205.

(*z*) Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne, Tom. I. Ch. X. p. 286. It farther says, that in the year 1552, the woollen manufactures in Segovia employed above 13,000 hands.

the

the Moors, things are so much altered for the worse, that in Spain there is a want even of the most necessary crafts and trades. The duke de Riperda, indeed, set up some linen and other manufactories in Guadalaxara, and invited workmen from Holland and other countries; but, at his fall, all these promising beginnings dropped, and the foreign manufacturers returned home (a). Ferdinand VI. and Charles III. were likewise very intent on the same object; and the present Spanish administration seem to apply themselves in good earnest to redress such a capital defect: at least, according to the public accounts, several cloth and silk looms, with other manufactures and fabrics, are already at work *.

S E C T. LIX.

Of home-
trade.

By these means the Spanish home-trade is in a fair way to prosper, whereas hitherto it was cramped by several other discouragements, besides the want of manufactures;

(a) *Memoires Instructifs*, Tom. II. p. 43, 44, 45. The author relates, that some unknown people distributed money among these manufacturers secretly, and as it were out of pity; yet upon condition that they should return back into their own country again; and afterwards, on any delay, threatened them with the inquisition.

* Philip V. besides erecting manufactures and fabrics, bestowed many encouraging privileges on the undertakers and workmen. See *Ustariz*, chap. lxii. lxiii. lxiv.

for

for the many tolls and imposts made the goods too dear, and the badness of the roads rendered it extremely chargeable and troublesome to transport them from one province into another. King Philip V. to remove these difficulties, suppressed the inland tolls, and replaced some on the harbours (*b*). He likewise intended to provide for the convenience of home-trade by good roads, canals, and making rivers navigable †; but these views have remained long unexecuted.

S E C T. LX.

The Spanish foreign commerce is very considerable, almost all European nations trade to Spain, but especially the English, Dutch, and French (*c*). In the latter half of the former century, the two first nations had the greatest traffic, which was likewise established by several treaties, very much to their advantage (*d*): but since the house of Bourbon

Foreign
commerce.

(*b*) Ustariz, chap. lv. p. 189, &c.

† Few of the large rivers in Spain can be said to be navigable. Some Dutchmen, in the reign of Charles II. laid a proposal before the council for making the Manzanares and the Tagus navigable, and thereby open a communication between Madrid and Lisbon; but this proposal was rejected on reasons deduced from religion. Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 315, 316.

(*c*) Ustariz, chap. xlix.

(*d*) *Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne*, Tom. II. ch. vii. viii.

has

has possessed the Spanish throne, the French are most favoured (*e*). However, instead of the Spaniards exporting much themselves, foreigners bring their goods and carry away Spanish commodities in return. It is only the Biscayners who go to France, England, and Holland, and sometimes as far as Ham-
burgh and Dantzick; and some Spanish sea-ports on the Mediterranean carry on a trade to the south coasts of France, to Genoa and Leghorn (*f*). The Spaniards are in general losers by the foreign trade, since their importations from abroad far exceed their exports; and consequently the balance must be made up in specie *. Spain other-
wise is excellently well situated for mari-
time trade, and has many good harbours both on the ocean and the Mediterranean, among which Cadiz is the principal: it is, indeed, the center of the Spanish, European, and American trade.

(*e*) Ustariz, ch. v. p. 163, 166.

(*f*) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 316. *Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne*, Tom. II. ch. iii. p. 121.

* Ustariz, ch. ii. complains greatly of this, and of the millions which go every year into the pope's Datary for ecclesiastical merchandize; and to these two causes it is owing, as he says, that Spain is so bare of gold and silver. He moreover thinks, that notwithstanding the prodigious quantities of those noble metals which are brought from America, scarce a hundred millions of coined and wrought silver are to be found in all Spain. See Ustariz, ch. iii.

S E C T. LXI.

The Spaniards do not trade to Africa, Turkey, or the East-Indies: their traffic to the Canary-Islands, indeed, is an article of pretty good account, but in which other European nations come in for a share. The most considerable trade of the Spaniards is to their American possessions, from which all foreign nations are absolutely excluded. This trade is carried on from Cadiz, under the inspection of the India-council (Casa de la Contractation a las Indias). 1. In the Flota, as it is called, which consists partly of king's ships, and partly of merchant-ships, and sails to Vera Cruz. A little before their departure, two or three frigates, called the Flotilla, are dispatched to carry intelligence of them. 2. In the galleons, which are eight or ten men of war, serving as convoy to twelve or fifteen merchant-ships, which first go to Carthagena, then to Porto-Bello, thence again to Carthagena, afterwards to the Havannah, and from thence proceed back to Spain. 3. In the register-ships, which merchants, with licence from the council of trade, send to several parts of the West-Indies. Besides these, the king likewise, at certain times, sends the azogue or quick-silver ships to Vera Cruz, which carry

quicksilver for the Mexico mines (*g*). All the above-mentioned ships carry Spanish and other European goods to the West-Indies, and bring back an amazing quantity of gold and silver, with other very valuable commodities. The Spaniards not having goods by far sufficient for this trade, the greater part are consigned to them by the French, Italians, English, Dutch, and others; and the merchants at Cadiz, for an acknowledgment, or part of the profit, send the goods under their respective names to America. Thus most of the gold and silver comes ultimately into the hands of foreigners; so that, in this important trade, the Spaniards are little more than factors (*b*); in which, however, it is agreed that they act with very uncommon probity and honour (*i*).

S E C T. LXII.

Trade between Manilla and Acapulco.

By favour of the Spanish court, a considerable trade is likewise carried on from the city of Manilla in the island of Lucon, to Acapulco in Mexico; but with as little advantage to the crown of Spain, as to the

(*g*) M. de Real Science du Gouvernement, Tom. II. p. 92.

(*b*) Id. *ibid.* Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne, Tom. II. p. 131. where is likewise an inventory of goods sent to the West-Indies.

(*i*) Memoires de Montgon, Tom. IV. p. 63, 71, 72.

Spanish subjects, it being entirely given up to the convents in Manilla, and particularly the Jesuits*, for the support of their missions, as they are called. Every year, two ships, furnished by the king, usually go from the said city to Acapulco, with a cargo of all kinds of East-India goods, for which they seldom bring back less than three millions of piastras (k).

S E C T. LXIII.

That the Spanish administration is more intent at present on the advancement of trade than formerly, appears from a company being set up in 1728, for trading from St. Sebastian's to the Caraccas in South-America; and another in 1756, for a traffick to the Island of Hispaniola, the Bay of Honduras, and those parts.

Trading
companies
in Spain.

S E C T. LXIV.

The administration of the affairs of the Spanish monarchy, is conducted by several assemblies.

Administra-
tion of go-
vernment
and state af-
fairs.

1. La Junta del Despacho Universal, or the cabinet council, in which the most important affairs, and matters of favour, both domestic and foreign, come under delibe-

* This must have admitted of some alteration, since the expulsion of the Jesuits. Transl.

(k) Anson's Voyages, Book II. ch. x.

ration. The secretary to this cabinet council (Secretario del Despacho Universal) is accounted the most considerable among the ministers, the king frequently discoursing of affairs, and forming resolutions with him only; and whatever concerns the crown goes through his hands (*l*).

II. El Consejo de Estado, the council of state, which manages the general affairs of the kingdom, and consists of the greatest state officers. Its president is always the senior counsellor; and the archbishop of Toledo is, by virtue of his dignity, a counsellor of state (*m*).

III. El Consejo Supremo de Guerra, the great council of war, which is divided into two chambers; one taking cognizance of every thing relating to the military, and the other decides law cases. The counsellors of state are by their office counsellors of war, and in the meetings of this council take precedence (*n*).

IV. El Consejo Real de Castilla, the royal council of Castile, consisting of a president and sixteen counsellors. It has four divisions, viz.

(*a*) Sala de Gobierno, which takes care of the king's prerogative in ecclesiastical affairs.

(*l*) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 211, 212.

(*d*) Ibid. p. 218, 219.

(*n*) Id. Ibid.

(*b*) Sala

(b) Sala de Mil y Quinientos (a), where processes, on a petition from a decree of the council, are revised.

(c) Sala de Justicia, where the papal bulls and penal causes are examined.

(d) Sala de Provincia, which takes cognizance of causes brought before the council of Castile, by appeal from the lower courts.

The council of Castile, by an order of Philip IV. in the year 1623, confers the professorships in the universities of Salamanca, Valladolid, and Alcala de Henares (p).

V. La Real Camara de Castilla, the royal chamber of Castile, which is annexed to the council of Castile; and the president of which, with three or four counsellors, a referendary, and three clerks, constitutes this council: and here, by virtue of the king's right of patronage, are issued nominations to church and law employments, as likewise matters of favour and pardons of delinquents and malefactors (q).

VI. El Consejo Real y Supremo de las Indias, the supreme royal council of India.

(a) For the origin of this name, see Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 22. and Montgon, Tom. VI. p. 96.

(p) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 222, 229.

(q) Ibid. p. 229. and foll.

To its inspection belong the whole Spanish American dominion, and likewise the Audiencia de la Contratación, or the Cadiz council of trade. They who have been viceroys in the West-Indies, or held other great employments in that part of the world, are generally appointed members of this council (*r*).

VII. El Consejo Real de Hazienda y Contaduría Mayor, the royal council of finances and accounts. This council manages the king's revenue; and here all farmers, contractors, or other officers concerned in it, must give in their accounts (*s*).

VIII. El Consejo de la Suprema y general Inquisition, the president of which is inquisitor-general. All the other courts of inquisition within the kingdom are subordinate to this, which likewise has the disposal of all their vacant employments (*t*).

IX. El Consejo Real de las Ordenes, the royal council of the orders of knighthood, to which belong two departments; one for the order of St. James, and the other for those of Calatrava and Alcántara (*u*).

(*r*) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 233, and foll.

(*s*) Ibid. p. 244, 250.

(*t*) Ibid. Tom. II. p. 384, 385.

(*u*) Ibid. Tom. II. p. 394.

X. La Commiffaria y Direccion general de la Cruzada, the Croifade-bull commiffion *. Its prefident is ftiled Commiffario-General, and has two affeffors, who are members of the council of Caftile, and one of the council of India, with feveral other officers. His jurifdiction comprehends the whole monarchy, with all its dependencies; and takes cognizance of all matters relating to the tax levied on the Spanifh clergy by the pope's confent, and the trade (x) with the croifade-bulls.

SECT. LXV.

The Spanifh provinces and dependencies are under the adminiftration of governors, who in thofe provinces which are kingdoms bear the title of viceroy (Virey); in the others they are ufually ftiled captain-general; but otherwife their power is equal, and

Govern-
ment in the
Spanifh de-
pendencies.

* In the year 1457, pope Calixtus II. fent to king Henry IV. of Caftile, for defraying the expences of the war againft the Moors, the firft Croifade-bull, containing an indulgence for the dead and living; and of which all might be partakers, who either ferved againft the infidels, or paid 200 maravedis to the king towards carrying on the war againft them. This bull, however, was granted only for twenty-four years. Mariana, Lib. XXII. cap. xviii. But the fucceeding kings have from time to time procured it to be renewed, and extended to feveral religious privileges; fo that a licence for eating butter, eggs, cheefe, milk, in a time of faft, is to be purchafed by a printed copy of this bull, on paying eight reals to the king. Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 389.

(x) Vayrac, Tom. II. p. 388, 389.

very great it is, all officers, civil and military, being under their command. They have the disposal of most vacant employments, or recommend persons to the king (y). The governors have many opportunities of raising a fortune, and are very expert at making the most of them *. This is particularly the case in America, where the administration is the more arbitrary, by being so remote from court, and by the great difficulty of laying any complaint before the throne †.

S E C T. LXVI.

The domestic state of Spain is susceptible of many improvements ; and matters would be exceedingly mended by promoting agriculture and manufactures, which would tend to the increase of population, the chief strength of a state. Her domestic and foreign trade would revive and flourish ; and instead of being obliged to deal the greatest part of her West-India treasures among

(y) Vayrac, Tom. III. p. 273, 274.

* The Spaniards themselves see nothing amiss in this ; and not only the viceroys, but likewise their officers and servants stick at no means to raise a fortune. See *Relationé della Corte di Spagna*, da Domenico Zanetornato, p. 85, 86.

† See Don Emanuel de Lira's representation delivered to king Charles II. in the *Memoires sur le Commerce d'Espagne*, Tom. II. ch. i. p. 12. & foll.

foreigners, she might supply not only her own people, but likewise her American colonies, with all necessary commodities.

The foreign concerns of the Spanish monarchy are greatly altered since Spain has been under a king of the house of Bourbon. The former enmity against France is changed into amity and union. If policy on one side requires the careful maintenance of such harmony, on the other France is not to be so indifferent about the real advantage of Spain, as it has sometimes shewn itself (z). Foreign interests of Spain.

Portugal is of itself too weak to hurt Spain; yet is it adviseable for Spain to cultivate the friendship of Portugal, as by means of its proximity, it may, in conjunction with other powers, give Spain a good deal of trouble; and Spain must also give over all thoughts of reducing Portugal, as in such a case Great-Britain will always step in to its assistance.

With the see of Rome Spain has almost continually preserved a good understanding, which by reason of the Spanish territories in Italy, was once of absolute necessity; and at present, one Spanish prince being possessed of Naples and Sicily, and another of Parma and Placentia, which connects these

(z) Campbell's Present State of Europe, ch. xi.

countries closely with Spain, it appears to be no less necessary.

Great Britain is the chief object of Spain's jealousy, which still looks with an evil eye on its holding Gibraltar and Minorca; but the strength of the British navy checks all hopes of recovering those places, and should likewise be a motive for Spain to avoid a rupture with that crown; recent instances having shewn of what detriment it may prove to her West-India treasures and possessions. But the Spaniards may be sure that Great Britain will never quarrel with them, whilst they observe the commercial treaties between the two nations.

Their quarrels with the house of Austria have ceased since Spain has been dispossessed of the greater part of the Italian territories formerly belonging to the Spanish monarchy, or to which it laid claim. But should the royal family of Spain, besides Parma and Placentia, which pursuant to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle were, on the demise of king Ferdinand VI. to have devolved to the empress queen, likewise extend its views to Milan and Tuscany, this would be opposed both by the king of Sardinia and the pope. The best way for Spain is to leave things in Italy as they are at present.

Spain

Spain and the United-Netherlands (since the other parts of the Low-Countries no longer belong to that crown) have little or no concern with each other, but in what relates to commerce; and it is in the same situation with regard to Denmark and Sweden.

The distance from Spain to Russia, Poland, and Prussia, is too great for them either to succour, or annoy, each other. A connection, however, with the last of those three powers may be convenient for Spain, in case of an Italian war with the house of Austria.

S E C T. LXVII.

The most interesting conventions of the crown of Spain with other powers, are the following.

Conventions with other powers.

I. With F R A N C E.

1. The peace of Vervins, 2d of May 1598 (a). The peace of the Pyrenees, 7th of November 1659 (b). 3. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 2d of May 1668 (c). 4.

(a) Corps Universel Diplomat. par M. Du Mont, Tom. V. Part. I. p. 561.

(b) Du Mont, Tom. VI. Part. II. p. 264. Le Droit Public de l'Europe, par M. l'Abbé de Mably, Tom. I. ch. i. p. 21. et suiv.

(c) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 89. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iv. p. 141.

That of Nimeguen, 17th of September 1678 (*d*). 5. The peace of Ryswick, 20th of September 1697 (*e*). And lastly, the Family-Compact, 15th of August 1761 (*f*).

II. With PORTUGAL.

1. The peace of Lisbon, the 13th of February 1668 (*g*); 2. That of Utrecht, the 8th of February 1713 (*b*); and 3. That of Paris, 10th of February 1763 (*i*).

III. With GREAT BRITAIN.

1. The treaty of peace and commerce at Madrid, 27th of May 1667 (*k*). 2. Convention relating to American affairs, of the 8th of July 1670 (*l*). 3. Of Utrecht, 13th of July 1713 (*m*). 4. That of Aix-la-Chapelle, the 18th of October 1748 (*n*); and

(*d*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 208. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iv. p. 202.

(*e*) Ibid. P. II. p. 408. Mably, Tom. I. ch. v. p. 231.

(*f*) An abstract is to be found in Faber's New Secretary of State for Europe, written in German.

(*g*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 70. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 141.

(*b*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 444. Mably, Tom. II. ch. vii. p. 185.

(*i*) Antony Faber's New Secretary of Europe, Part VIII. p. 117, 118.

(*k*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 27. Mably, Tom. II. ch. xii. p. 351.

(*l*) Ibid. P. I. p. 137.

(*m*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 393. Mably, Tom. II. ch. vii. p. 127.

(*n*) Recueil d'Actes & Traités, par Mr. Rouffet, Tom. XX. p. 179.

5. The

5. The peace of Paris, 10th of February 1763 (*o*).

IV. With the House of AUSTRIA.

1. The peace of Vienna, 30th of April 1725 (*p*); 2. Of Vienna, 18th of November 1738 (*q*); and 3. Of Aix-la-Chapelle, the 18th of October 1748 (*r*).

V. With the House of SAVOY.

1. Cession of the kingdom of Sicily, 10th July 1713 (*s*); and 2. The peace of Utrecht, 13th of August 1713 (*t*).

VI. With the UNITED-NETHERLANDS.

1. Peace of Munster, 30th of January 1648 (*u*); and 2. That of Utrecht, 26th of June 1714 (*x*).

(*o*) Faber's New Secretary of State for Europe, P. VIII. p. 117.

(*p*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 106. Mably, Tom. II. ch. vii. p. 157.

(*q*) Rouffet, Tom. XIII. p. 421, 527. Mably, Tom. II. ch. ix. p. 222.

(*r*) Art. VII. Rouffet, Tom. XX. p. 188.

(*s*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 389. Mably, Tom. II. ch. viii. p. 138.

(*t*) Ibid. P. I. p. 401. Mably, Tom. II. ch. viii. p. 137.

(*u*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 429. Mably, Tom. I. ch. i. p. 67.

(*x*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 427.

S E C T. LXVIII.

The most celebrated Spanish warriors and statesmen have been, under Sancho VI. and Alphonso VI. kings of Castile, Don Rodrigo Dias de Vivar, commonly known by the name of el Cid, the Spanish Hercules. Under Ferdinand the Catholick, Christopher Columbus, who discovered the New World; in consideration of which he was made admiral of the Indies for him and his heirs; Gonfalez Ferdinand de Cordova, surnamed El Gran Capitan; Francis Ximenes de Cisneros, cardinal of Spain, and archbishop of Toledo. Under Charles V. Ferdinand Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico; Francisco Pizarro, who reduced Peru under the Spanish dominions; Mercurius Alborius de Gattinara, and Nicholaus Perenot de Granvelle, who rose from the most abject condition to the most exalted dignities. Under Philip II. Ferdinand Alvarez de Toledo, duke of Alva, whose rigour occasioned the revolt of the Netherlands, but afterwards made some amends to Spain by reducing the kingdom of Portugal; Cardinal Anthony Perenot de Granvelle, Nicholas Perenot's son; Don John of Austria I. who gave that famous blow to the Turkish navy at Lepanto. Under Philip III. Don Francis

cis de Sandoval, duke, and afterwards cardinal, of Lerma, who engrossed the management of all affairs, as prime minister of state. Under Philip IV. Don Gaspar de Guzman, count of Olivares, and duke of St. Lucas, commonly called el Conde-Duque, who had the like vicissitudes of fortune as the duke of Lerma; and his sister's son Don Lewis Mendez de Haro, duke of Montoro, and marquis Del Carpio. Under Charles II. Eberhard Neithard, a German Jesuit, afterwards Inquisitor-General of Spain; and Don John of Austria II. natural son to king Philip IV. Under Philip V. Cardinal Julius Alberoni; John William, baron, and afterwards duke of Ripperda; and Don Joseph de Carillo, count of Montemar, and duke of Bitonto.

S E C T. LXIX.

The sources of the Spanish history are contained in some collections published by Andreas Schottus, John Pistorius, and Francis Schottus (y). The principal authors of the general histories of Spain are, Stephen de Garibay (z), Ma-

(y) Under this title: *Hispania Illustrata, opera et studio doctorum hominum*. IV. Tomi; Francofurti, 1603, 1606, 1608, fol.

(z) *Los quarenta Libros del Compendio historial de las Chronicas y Universal Historia de todos los Reynos de Espana,*

riana (*a*), Saavedro Faxardo (*b*), and Ferreras (*c*).

Accounts of the state of Spain have been given by Goes (*d*), De Laet (*e*), Bosius (*f*), Abbe Vayrac (*g*), and others (*h*).

na, compuestos por Estevan. De Garibay in Barcelona, 1628. IV. Tomos, fol.

(*a*) 10. Mariana: *Historiæ de rebus Hispanicis, Libri XXX.* Accedunt Josephi Emmanuelis Minianæ Continuationis Novæ Lib. X. cum Iconibus Regum; Hagæ comit. 1733. IV. Tomi fol. Mariana himself has farther translated his history into Spanish. It was published at Madrid in 1608, in two volumes folio, and has since gone through several editions. Mariana's own countrymen, however, are not much pleased with him, and condemn him for the freedom with which he censures their base actions. See Saavedra's *Corona Gothica*, P. I. c. ix p. m. 130. and the same writer's *Republica Literaria*, p. 59. Mariana's History, however, has been continued by Medrano in a large work: *Continuation de la Historia General de Espanna, de Anno 1516, a 1700.* 3 Tom. fol. Madrid, 1748. See Clarke's Letters, p. 68.

(*b*) *Corona Gothica Castellana y Austriaca, en Munster, or in reality, Amsterdam, 1646, 4to.* This is the first part of the work, which afterwards was augmented with three others by Don Alphonso Nunnez de Castro. It has been several times printed in Spain, but the best edition is that of Antwerp, in four volumes folio, published in 1687.

(*c*) *Synopsis Chronologica de la Historia de Espanna, XV. Partes IV.* Mr. d'Hermilly has translated this work into French, under the title of *Histoire Generale d'Espagne*, (à Paris, 1751. X. Tomes IV.) and from this was taken the German translation. As Ferrares breaks off with king Philip II. Mr. Professor Bertram of Halle has entered on a continuation of it, which is very well written; and two volumes have already appeared.

(*d*) Damaini a Goes *Hispania, in Hispania illustrata*, Tom. I. p. 1106.

(*e*) *Hispania, five, de Regis Hispaniæ Regnis & Opibus Commentarius*, Lugd. Bat. 1629. in form. min.

(*f*) *Hispaniæ, Ducatus Mediolanensis & Regni Neopolitani Notitia e Museo* 10. Andr. Schmidii. Helmstädi, 1704. 4.

(*g*) *Etat*

(g) *Etat present de l'Espagne, à Amsterdam; 1719. 3 Tomes. 8.*

(b) Among others: *Hispaniæ et Lusitaniæ Itinerarium nova & accurata descriptione iconibusque loca eorundem præcipua illustrans. Amstelod. 1656. 12.*

Annales d'Espagne et de Portugal, avec la Description de tout ce qu'il y a de plus remarquable en Espagne et en Portugal, par Don Jean Alvarez de Colmenar, à Amsterd. 1741. IV. Tomes. 4.

Letters concerning the Spanish Nation; written at Madrid during the years 1760 and 1761, by Edward Clarke; London, 1763-4.

This work has been translated into the German language, by Mr. Professor Kohler of Gottingen, with notes and illustrations.

Of the Spanish laws, a good account is given by Peter Joseph Perez Valiente, *Apparatus Juris publici Hispanici*, printed at Madrid in 1751, in 2 vols. 4to.

Concerning the former interest and policy of Spain, see *Campanellæ de Monarchiâ Hispanicâ Discursus. Hardervici, 1653. 12. Hispanicæ Dominationis Arcana, per I. L. W. Lugd. Bat. 1653. 12.*

The Spanish finances, manufactures, and trade, are discussed with great accuracy and judgment in *Theoria y Practica de Comercio y de Marina, que se procuran adaptar à la Monarchia Espannola, por Don Geronimo de Ustariz, en Madrid, 1742. fol.* This excellent work is likewise translated into some foreign languages. Another good treatise on the same subject is, *Memoires et Considerations sur le Commerce et les Finances d'Espagne, à Amsterd. 1761. 8. 2 Vol.*

For the character of the Spanish nation, see Mr. Gundling's *Discourse on the Morals, Capacities, and Dispositions of the Spaniards, in his Otia, P. I. ch. i.*

THE HISTORY OF THE

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THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. III.
OF PORTUGAL.

SECT. I.

THE kingdom of Portugal was anciently a part of Spain, and generally comprehended under that province to which the Romans gave the name of Lusitania. The present appellation was derived from a place at the mouth of the Douro, which, on account of its excellent harbour, was called Porto, and the adjacent town of Cale or Calle (*a*) ; from which at first was compounded Portucalia or Portucallia, and afterwards, by a slender alteration, Portugallia. At first, no more was understood by it than the present province of Entre Minho e Dou-

Name.

(*a*) Mariana, Lib. I. cap. iv. Universal History, Vol. XVIII. p. 478.

ro, which the kings of Leon had wrested from the Moors: but when count Henry and his son Alphonso began to enlarge their conquests in these parts, the name was given to the whole country (*b*).

S E C T. II.

Situation
and bounds.

Portugal is the most western land in Europe, and lies between the 37th and 42d degree of northern latitude, and the 7th and 11th western longitude, from the meridian of Ferro. Towards the south and west, it confines on the Atlantic Ocean; and towards the north and east it is hemmed in by the Spanish provinces of Galicia, Leon, Estremadura, and Andalusia. Its extent is about 1545 square geographical miles (*c*).

S E C T. III.

Air and
tempera-
ture.

The air and temperature is more agreeable and moderate than in Spain; for though the summer heats in the southern provinces be extreme, yet are they seldom of any long continuance, being very much abated by the frequent westerly winds. The winter is mild; but by reason of the violent rains, very disagreeable.

(*b*) M. Schmaufen's State of the Kingdom of Portugal, written in German, P. I. p. 83.

(*c*) Busching's Geography, Vol. II.

S E C T. IV.

The great branches of the Pyrenean ^{Hills.} mountains which spread all over Spain, shoot likewise into Portugal, and form several new chains. The most known are Estrella, Marvan, Sintra, Arabida, Tagro, or Sagro, and the Algarves mountains, which separate that kingdom from Portugal (d).

S E C T. V.

From these mountains issue a great num- ^{Rivers.} ber of rivers and streams, delightfully watering the vallies and plains; but its chief rivers, as the Minho, the Lima, the Douro, the Tagus; and the Guadiana, come from Spain.

S E C T. VI.

Portugal is by nature one of the most ^{Products in the animal kingdom.} happy and fruitful countries in Europe. Its beef is excellent, yet the inhabitants are deficient in breeding horned cattle; the wool of its sheep, besides the delicacy of the flesh, is scarce inferior to the Spanish. It abounds in swine, and its pork excels that of most other nations (e). The Portuguese horses

(d) Manuel De Faria y Sousa en la Epitome de las Historias Portuguesas, Parte IV. cap. vi. p. 357, 358.

(e) Faria y Sousa, P. IV. cap. viii. p. 361.

have in all ages been celebrated for swiftness (*f*) ; but the breeding of them is at present much decreased, asses and mules having been found fitter for use (*g*). Of poultry and wild-fowl it has plenty, and the rivers and sea supply it with fish of the best kinds (*b*).

In the vegetable kingdom.

The vegetable kingdom yields the most delicious fruits, lemons, Seville and China oranges *, almonds, figs, chefnuts ; likewise grapes, olives and oil, in such quantities as to supply many countries in and out of Europe. Every part of Portugal affords wine : the preference, however, is given to that of Lisbon growth, and that of the province of Alentejo. The fields and woods are covered with scented flowers, herbs, trees, and plants, of which the bees make the best of honey ; yet the latter has lost not a little of its esteem, since sugar is come so much in vogue. Portugal, till the reign of king Ferdinand, produced corn for exportation ; but since its great maritime discoveries, and the eager application of the people to navigation and commerce, conse-

(*f*) Justin, Lib. XLIV. cap. iii. Faria y Sousa. L. C.

(*g*) Schmauff. P. I. p. 74, 75.

(*b*) Faria y Sousa, P. IV. cap. viii. p. 361.

* These, as appears from their names, were brought from China to Portugal, and there transplanted.

quential to those discoveries, and turning to better account, agriculture is fallen into such neglect (*i*), that, instead of exporting, they purchase grain from foreigners, and more especially from the English.

Portugal, like Spain, antiently yielded great quantities of the more noble metals; and the Portuguese boast of their country, that there is not a mountain or river in it without gold (*k*). The Tagus is often mentioned by the Romans for its gold *; but at present, the Portuguese receiving such treasures of that metal from the East-Indies and Brazil, have given over searching for it in their hills and rivers. Several parts have silver, tin, lead, and iron; yet the mines of these ores are not worked †. Portugal, farther, is not without some kinds of gems, as turquoises and hyacinths, crystals, agates, and many others; its marble is exquisite both in grain and colours; and the Portu-

In the mineral kingdom.

(*i*) Faria y Sousa, P. IV. cap. viii. p. 360, 361.

(*k*) Ibid. p. 361.

* See Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. IV. cap. xxii. Martial, Lib. I. Epigr. 50, calls it "Aureus Tagus;" and Lib. XII. Epigr. 12, "Aurifer Tagus." King Dionysius is said to have had a sceptre and crown made of Tagus gold, and king John III. another sceptre.

† There is a famous silver-mine by the side of the Guadiana, called *Via de Plata*, and some others in the northern parts of the kingdom; but for particular reasons of state, these, like the abovementioned, are made no use of. *Memoires Instructifs pour un Voyageur*, Tom. I. p. 211.

guese mill-stones are of such a goodness as to be carried to Spain and the Indies (*l*). A rich salt-petre mine has been discovered by a foreigner in Estrella-hills (*m*). Salt, and particularly sea-salt, is made in such quantities, as to be a considerable article in exportation (*n*). In some places are mineral waters, and warm baths, or, as the Portuguese call them, As Caldas (*o*); those in the country of Leria are said to do wonders in venereal diseases (*p*).

S E C T. VII.

Division of
the king-
dom.

Portugal is divided into six provinces: two north of the Douro, namely, 1. Entre Minho e Douro; 2. Trafs os Montes (in Spanish Tra los Montes) two in the middle between the Douro and Tagus; 3. Beira; 4. Estremadura: and two are inclosed within the Tagus, the Guadiana, and the Ocean; namely, 5. Alem-Tejo, or Entre-Tejo e Guadiana; and, 6. Algarves, which has the title of a kingdom. In all these provinces are nineteen large cities, and 527 towns.

(*l*) Faria y Sousa, P. IV. cap. viii. p. 362, 363. Schmauff. P. I. p. 75—80.

(*m*) Memoires Instructifs pour un Voyageur, Tom. I. p. 176, 178.

(*n*) Faria y Sousa, cap. viii. p. 361. Schmauff. P. I. p. 45, 48, and Part II. p. 429.

(*o*) Ibid. P. IV. cap. vii. p. 360.

(*p*) Memoires Instruct. Tom. I. p. 52.

S E C T. VIII.

Portugal's dependencies in the other three parts of the world are much larger than the mother-kingdom itself; for though the Portuguese have lost a great part of them, what still remains in their hands is very considerable. Among these are,

Depend-
cies.

1. In the Atlantic Ocean, the Azores islands, otherwise the Flemish islands; the principal of which is Tercera; likewise the island Madera or Madeira, so famous for its wine, sugar, and other products; and Porto Santo: next are the Cape de Verd islands, or Ilhas do Cabo Verde, but of which sea-salt is the only merchantable product; and lastly, on the African coast under the Equator, are the islands of San Thome, do Principe, Fernando Pao and Anno Bono.

In the At-
lantic
ocean.

2. In Africa their western possessions are, Mazagan, a fort in the kingdom of Morocco, and several places and forts in the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, and Angola; particularly Loanda da San Paulo in the East: they here carry on a very considerable and lucrative trade, but the principal article of it is slaving. On the eastern coasts of Africa, they have several forts in Soffala, which yields great quantities of gold, and in the island of Mosambique, besides many small

In Africa.

small

small islands known by the general name of Quirimba.

In Asia.

3. They have large territories in Asia; particularly in the kingdom of Cambaia, to them belong Diu, a strong place, likewise Duncan, Bazaim, and others; in the kingdom of Decan, Chaoul; in the kingdom of Cuncan, Goa, the capital of the Portuguese East-India possessions; and lastly, the city of Macao, in a small island on the coast of China*.

4. In America they have possessed themselves of Brazil, under which general name is also comprehended a part of Guiana and Paraguay. The whole Portuguese dominion is divided into fifteen Capitancias or governments; and the principal places therein are, Para, Olinda, San Salvadore, the residence of the Portuguese viceroy, and San Sebastian, commonly called Rio Janeiro. The country abounds in sugar, tobacco, Brazil wood, spices and drugs; likewise gold and diamonds†. Hence Brazil is justly

* This city intirely depends on the courtesy of the Chinese, who, at their pleasure, may make themselves masters of it, or starve it; and the Portuguese governor there is treated pretty much on a footing with a Chinese subject. Anson's Voyage round the World, ch. vii.

† Gold was discovered in Brazil towards the end of the last century, merely by accident; and the annual amount of it is now computed at twelve millions of dollars. Anson's Voyage round the World, Book I. c. v. The dis-

accounted the most considerable of all the Portuguese dependencies, and in the present century has been peopled and cultivated accordingly. In order to promote its population, king Joseph in 1755, declared that marriages between Portuguese and Indians should be legal and valid, and the issue of such marriages be capable of employments and honours (q).

The founding of the colony of San Sacramento, on the river de la Plata, by the Portuguese in 1680, occasioned great differences between them and the Spaniards, which at length were determined by the peace of Utrecht *, in 1713.

covery of diamonds is of a later date; but to prevent too busy a search after them, and keep them up to a proper value, king John V. erected a Diamond-Company, which, in consideration of a sum of money, have an exclusive right of gathering diamonds. Anson's Voyage, Book I. ch. v.

(q) New Genealogical. Historical Accounts, written in German, p. 74.

* Philip V. however, reserved to himself, in the VIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht, the giving the crown of Portugal an equivalent for San Sacramento, on which that colony was to be ceded to Spain, the clandestine trade between that place and Buenos Ayres being exceeding detrimental to the Spaniards. Likewise, in the year 1750, it was agreed between the two courts, that San Sacramento should be exchanged with the Spaniards for a piece of land in Paraguay; but in 1753, when this came to be put in execution, and the limits were to be settled by commissaries on both sides, the Indians, at the instigation of the Jesuits, opposed it, and the agreement came to nothing. See a Short Account of the Republic erected by the Jesuits of the Provinces of Portugal and Spain in the transmarine Countries and Dominions of those two Monarchies, p. 7—24.

The

The possession of these important countries the Portuguese acquired by arms; and their right rests partly on several papal grants *, and partly on the convention made with Spain at Tordefillas, in the year 1494; by which king Ferdinand the Catholic king of Spain, and John II. of Portugal, made a formal division of their new discoveries of the globe between them †.

S E C T. IX.

Origin and
revolutions
of the
kingdom.

As Lusitania was formerly a part of Spain, so has it partaken of its destiny. In the second Punic war, the Carthaginians being driven out of Spain, it fell under the domi-

* Pope Nicholas V. in the year 1452 and 1454, gave to Alphonso V. king of Portugal two grants relating to the Portuguese conquests in Africa, both which were confirmed by pope Calixtus III. in the year 1455: the first of these grants is to be found in Raynaldi Contin. Annal. Baronii, Tom. XVIII. ad Ann. 1452. No. XI. the 2d. ib. ad Ann. 1454. No. VIII. and the Confirmation, ibid. ad Ann. 1455. No. VII.

† The occasion of it was this: On Christopher Columbus's return from his discovery of the New World, Ferdinand procured a bull from pope Alexander VI. by which all the countries of the infidels, to the extent of one thousand leagues, from the Azores and the Cape de Verd islands, were given to the crown of Spain. In this John II. king of Portugal would not acquiesce, but appealed to other papal grants. Hereupon the two kings determined to settle the dispute amicably; and this was done by the convention of Tordefillas, which extended the pope's partition line to 390 leagues west of the Cape de Verd islands. Faria y Soufa in Europa Portuguesa, Tom. II. Part III. c. iv. No. 80, 82. This partition gave the Portuguese a right to Brazil.

nion

nion of the Romans, and so remained till the beginning of the fifth century, when the Alani, Suevi, and Vandals, over-ran Spain. The Alani were the first who seated themselves in Lusitania; and afterwards the Suevi set up a kingdom in this country, but which ^{584.} Lewigild king of the Visigoths overthrew. The Moors, in process of time, conquering ^{712.} Spain, Lusitania likewise became subject to them; but Alphonso III. king of Leon, and Ferdinand I. king of Castile, gradually dispossessed them of the country between the Minho and Douro, which was then called Portucale or Portugal; and Alphonso VI. ^{1095.} king of Castile, conferred it in full right by a testamentary bequest on his son-in-law Henry of Burgundy, with the title of ^{1109.} count. His son Alphonso I. by his successes against the Moors, enlarged his dominions; and after the signal victory obtained over them at Ourique, assumed the ^{1139.} title of King. This Alphonso VIII. king of Castile and Leon would not allow of, looking on Portugal as a fief of Leon; but Alphonso I. being supported by Rome, whose countenance he purchased by making his kingdom tributary to that see, kept possession of his new dignity. His successors, Sancho I. Alphonso II. and Sancho II. had violent contests with the clergy concerning eccle-

- ecclesiastical immunities, for which the latter was deposed by the sentence of pope Innocent IV. His brother and successor Alphonso III. reduced Algarves, since which the kingdom of Portugal has continued within its present limits. His son Dionysius made up his differences with the clergy by agreement, greatly to the advantage of that body and the pope; consequently inglorious and detrimental to the regal dignity: otherwise he behaved as a wise prince, particularly encouraging tillage; and he was both a judicious and liberal patron of the sciences. Alphonso IV. his son, chiefly distinguished himself in war; and his successor Peter I. was a just prince, but, at the same time, too rigid. His son Ferdinand, who succeeded him on the throne, was himself the cause of the misfortunes which embittered his reign.
1245. The kingdom after his death became involved in great troubles. John I. king of Castile, who had married Beatrix, Ferdinand's only daughter, laid claim to the crown. But the Portuguese, detesting a foreign sovereign, made choice of John, a natural son of Peter I. who obtaining a decisive victory over the Castilians, shewed himself worthy of the throne, and reigned with great applause. He took from the Moors the
- 1249.
- 1289.
- 1383.
- 1385.
- the

the town of Ceuta on the coast of Africa; and under his auspices it was that the Portuguese discovered the Azores islands, and that of Madera. His son Edward, endeavouring to enlarge his African conquests, proved unfortunate; but Alphonso V. in the prosecution of the like views, was as successful, and reduced Alcazar, Tangier, and Arcilla; and soon after were discovered Guinea and Congo. His successor John II. humbled the Portuguese nobility, and principally directed his views to extend the Portuguese navigation as far as the East-Indies; to which country, under his successor Emanuel, Vasco de Gama made the first voyage with great success. By these and the succeeding conquests on the south coasts of Asia and Africa, the Portuguese became masters of the East-India trade, which poured in such riches, that Emanuel's reign was termed the Golden Age. This prosperity likewise continued under his son John III. but Sebastian, grandson and successor to the latter, rashly undertaking an expedition to Africa, in which he himself lost his life, 1578. occasioned a fatal revolution to Portugal.

For his grandfather's brother, cardinal Henry, who succeeded him in the throne, died after a short reign, and with him the male line of the royal family became extinct.

Here-

Hereupon Philip II. king of Spain, claimed the kingdom in right of his mother Isabella, daughter to king Emanuel; and maintaining his claim by force, he united Portugal with Spain; an union by which the former kingdom was a great sufferer. Under the two following kings, Philip III. and Philip IV. the Portuguese lost the most considerable part of their East-India trade, and of their East and West-India conquests, which were all wrested from them by the inhabitants of the United Netherlands, then at war with Spain.

1640.

These misfortunes, and more especially the domestic oppressions, exasperated the Portuguese to such a degree, that they universally revolted, and proclaimed the duke of Braganza king, by the name of John IV. who kept possession of his new crown. Under his son Alphonso VI. the Spaniards, indeed, strained every nerve to recover Portugal; but were so far from succeeding, that, at the peace which terminated this war, they were obliged to renounce all claim and pretension to this kingdom, retaining only the single town of Ceuta. Alphonso VI. however, had no share personally in these glorious events; and even before the peace had been deposed, as unfit for government. His brother Peter II. being greatly instrumental

1668.

in

in this revolution, was recompensed not only with the throne, but, what was still more extraordinary, with the spouse of the late king: he governed with great prudence, justice, and magnanimity, restoring the laws to their due vigour, which they had lost amidst the confusions of the former reign, and punished all offenders without respect of persons. John V. trod in the foot-steps of ^{1756.} his father, and made the prerogative more independent than it had been before his time. He promoted arts and sciences with royal munificence; but his expences in ecclesiastical buildings and foundations were carried to such an enormous profuseness, that the state groaned under the load, by such mistaken devotion. His successor Joseph, finding many abuses had crept in under the former administration, very carefully applied himself to correct them, and place things on a better footing. This paternal care of his subjects, however, did not secure him from many calamitous events: he saw a great part ^{1755.} of his capital city Lisbon, laid in ruins by a most terrible earthquake and a conflagration; and his person very narrowly escaped the ^{1758.} murderous attempt of a powerful conspiracy. Farther, the war waged against him by France and Spain, from a very singular pretence, threatened him with the loss of his

VOL. I. T king-

1763.

kingdom; but the open assistance of Great Britain and the speedy restoration of peace prevented the consequences, which had so dangerous an appearance in respect to the very existence of Portugal.

S E C T. X.

The Portuguese, a mixed people.

The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, are a mixed people, descended from the several foreign nations which successively settled in that kingdom. Among them are no small number of Moorish, and still more of Jewish extraction; for king John II. having kindly received the Jews who had been driven out of Spain in the year 1492, and his successor Emanuel, on the contrary, taking violent measures for converting them, thousands offered themselves for baptism, and in process of time became, by marriages, more and more intermixed with the Portuguese. But not a few of these new christians retained their former religion, secretly practising its observances, and propagating it among their descendants. Hence the great number of latent Jews, and these even of all ranks (r).

S E C T. XI.

Their character.

The Portuguese are very like the Spaniards both in body and mind; and have most

(u) Schmauff. Part II. p. 280, 281.

of

of their virtues and vices. They are naturally ingenious and subtle; cautious, slow, and taciturn; sparing in their diet, and particularly in drinking (*s*). They have the character of being courteous to strangers, faithful in friendship, and cordially benevolent to their relations (*t*). They value themselves on their courage, learning, zeal for religion, and loyalty to their kings (*u*).

Their own countrymen allow, that in pride, pomp, and vanity, they exceed all nations (*x*). Their orators and poets, and even historians, are notoriously exaggerating in their relations of the achievements performed by their ancestors against the Castilians (*y*), and in the East-Indies (*z*). Covetousness and usury prevail among them to an enormous degree, which is attributed to the great mixture of Jewish blood (*a*). Their jealousy is without a parallel, their

(*s*) Description of Portugal, by J. M. Van Gobel, in German.

(*t*) De Real Science du Gouvernem. Part I. Tom. II. p. 114.

(*u*) Faria y Sousa en la Epitome de las Historias Portuguesas, P. IV. c. ii. p. 342.

(*x*) Id. ibid.

(*y*) Ibid. in Europa Portuguesa, Tom. II. Part III. c. i. No. 135, 136.

(*z*) Collecçam dos documentos e memorias du Academia Real da Historia Portuguesa de Anno 1724. Noticias do 22. Outubro, p. 14, 15.

(*a*) De Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 114.

women scarce ever going out of doors, unless in Passion-week, when they may visit churches day and night; a liberty of which they are said passionately to avail themselves in carrying on intrigues (*b*): otherwise, their confinement is so rigid, that it is only at the Auto da Fé processions, and those of Corpus-Christi-day, that they dare so much as be seen at the window (*c*); and here the husbands closely watch them, and sometimes on a bare suspicion make them the victims of their revenge (*d*). They are slow to anger; but when once roused, they are furious and cruel (*e*); which is experienced by their slaves, who often meet with very inhuman treatment from them (*f*).

The wealthy Portuguese are mighty lovers of finery, extremely ceremonious, and keep a great number of servants (*g*).

The principal and most favourite public diversions among the Portuguese are, as in Spain, the bull-fights. The festival of St. Anthony of Padua is annually solemnized at Lisbon by such an exhibition, he being both a native and the tutelar saint of this

(*b*) *Memoires Instructifs*, Tom. I. p. 135, 136.

(*c*) *Ibid.* Tom. I. p. 135. Tom. II. p. 164.

(*d*) *Ibid.* Tom. II. p. 165.

(*e*) Faria y Sousa in *Epitome*, Part IV. c. ii. p. 342.

(*f*) *Relation d'un Voyage de Mr. Froger*, p. 154, &c.

(*g*) *Schmauffi*. Part. II. p. 593.

city; and these dangerous spectacles, in which king Peter II. extremely delighted, are given on other occurrences of public rejoicings (b).

S E C T. XII.

Though the Portuguese and the Spaniards are of one origin, have the same religion, and are alike in manners, yet does a violent enmity prevail between them, and by the former is carried to the utmost extremity (i). The many contests and wars between these two nations ever since Portugal became a distinct kingdom, have produced and fomented this rancorous disposition; and the oppressions which the Portuguese suffered under the dominion of the Spaniards, have so increased the hatred of the former, that it seems inextinguishable.

Antipathy
of the Por-
tuguese and
Spaniards.

S E C T. XIII.

The Portuguese language is derived from the Latin, which in the time of the Romans was general in the country, and afterwards became intermixed with not a little French and Spanish. If the Portuguese themselves

Portuguese
language.

(b) Relation de la Cour de Portugal sous D. Pedre II. Tom. I. p. 11. The Description of a Lisbon bull-fight occurs in Memoires Instructifs, Tom. II. p. 131.

(i) Espion dans les Cours des Princes Chretiens, Tom. I. Lettre LXIX. p. 195. Memoires d'Ablancourt, p. 32.

do not boast much of its sublimity and energy, they account it a very pretty, engaging, and tender language. The best Portuguese is said to be spoken in Entre Minho e Douro, where it had its origin; and the worst in Tras os Montes (*k*). There is, however, no small difference between the Portuguese and the Spanish; the Portuguese translating Spanish, and the Spaniards Portuguese books.

S E C T. XIV.

Number of
inhabitants.

The kingdom of Portugal contains about eighteen hundred thousand, or two millions of souls *. It was formerly much more populous; but since the year 1500, the number of its inhabitants is very much diminished. This a Portuguese writer imputes to three causes: 1. The conquests in Asia, Africa, and America; the voyages to which countries, together with the wars and colonies, carried away great numbers. 2. The

(*k*) Faria y Sousa in Epit. Part. c. 342.

* Busching's New Geography, where he produces a computation from a Portuguese geographer, according to which the number of the inhabitants in Portugal about the year 1732, did not exceed one million seven hundred forty-two thousand two hundred and thirty; but as he thinks the clergy, monks, and nuns, are not included in that account, he makes a round number, and settles the whole at two millions. M. de Real Science du Gouvernement, Part. I. Tom. II. p. 115, estimates the number of inhabitants only at between thirteen and fourteen hundred thousand souls.

want of manufactures and handicrafts; and 3. The neglect of agriculture (*l*). To these may be further added, 4. The expulsion of the Jews under king Emanuel. 5. The great number of ecclesiastics and religious; and 6. The inquisition. That the nobility likewise are so very much declined, the said author accounts for, from many estates falling to one proprietor, which, of course, lessens the number of marriages; and from young ladies of quality having too large portions; so that it is only few noblemen who are able to marry only one daughter, and scarce any who can portion out two (*m*).

S E C T. XV.

The Portuguese nobility were formerly very numerous and considerable; and before the accession of the house of Braganza to the throne, possessed two-thirds of the kingdom (*n*). In former times the principal of the nobility, as in Spain, were stiled Ricos homens; but this appellation is grown quite obsolete, being superseded by the titles of duke, marquiss, count, viscount, and ba-

High and low nobility in Portugal.

(*l*) Manoel Severim de Faria Noticias de Portugal Discurso I. §. 2. p. 6—9.

(*m*) Ibid. p. 9. 10.

(*n*) Faria y Sousa in Epit. Part IV. c. x. p. 367.

rons (*a*). These at present constitute the high, or titular nobility, who are all grantees of Portugal, and place the respectable word Don before their names (*b*). In the want of lawful issue, or heirs, the illegitimate children of the high nobility succeed to the estates and title (*c*). The lower nobility in general are called Fidalgos; though some are distinguished by the title of Cavalleiro and Escudeiro (*d*).

King Emanuel endeared himself very much to the Portuguese nobility in causing the arms of all the families to be searched for in records, chapels, and on monuments; and draughts of them, in the exact rules of blazonry, methodically to be arranged in a book; and to this end he instituted a herald's office (*e*). This appeared the more necessary, as the converted Jews and new Christians at their baptisms assumed the name of their godfathers, which occasioned inextricable confusion in the genealogical registers of the ancient nobility (*f*).

(*a*) Manoel Severim de Faria y Noticias de Portugal, Disc. III. §. 20. p. 126, 127, 128. The same author gives an account of all these several titles and dignities, Disc. III. §. 23, 24, 25, 26.

(*b*) Ibid. Disc. III. §. 1. p. 88, and Schmaussen's State of Portugal, Part. II. p. 68.

(*c*) Memoires Instruct. Tom. I. p. 225, 226.

(*d*) Schmauss. Part II. p. 68.

(*e*) Faria y Sousa in Epit. Part IV. cap. xi. p. 370.

(*f*) Ibid. p. 375.

Those noblemen who hold employments at court, used to receive from the king a certain salary, which descended to their sons. This was called *Moradia*, and was answerable to the employment; and, though generally no great matter, was very much sought for by the noblesse, for the largeness of the *Moradia* added a lustre to their nobility (*u*): but of late these *Moradias* have been discontinued (*x*). It was customary among the Portuguese nobility, as among those of Spain, on any discontent against the government to renounce their country, and go over to the enemy.

S E C T. XVI.

The prerogative of the kings of Portugal was formerly limited by the states of the kingdom. These consist of the clergy, the nobility, and the cities. The clergy are represented by the archbishops and bishops; the nobility by the dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts and barons; and the cities send their deputies (*Procuradores*) to the diets (*Cortes*), which the king convenes at his pleasure (*z*). The limits of the royal

Form of government.

(*u*) Oforius de reb. Eman. Lib. XI. p. 322.

(*x*) Schmauff P. II. p. 64.

(*y*) Oforius de reb. Eman. Lib. XI. p. 323.

(*z*) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. P. IV. cap. xi. p. 346.

prerogative, and the power of the states of the kingdom, having never yet been rightly settled, some kings have assumed more power than others; and on the other hand, the states of the kingdom have, at different times, claimed a different share in the government. In the beginning of the reign of John IV. they had great weight both in foreign and domestic affairs; and every thing of any moment, relative to war, peace, or taxes, went through their hands (*a*). But under John V. who very much humbled the nobility (*b*), their consideration totally declined, and no diet has been held ever since; so that now the king of Portugal's power is unquestionably unlimited, except in determining the succession, and an arbitrary imposition of new taxes (*c*).

S E C T. XVII.

Fundamen-
tal laws.

The first and capital laws of the kingdom of Portugal occur in the resolutions of the diet held at Lamego (*d*) in 1143. By

(*a*) Vid. Caietani Passarelli *Bellum Lusitanum*, Lib. II. p. 58. a. Don Luis de Menezes, Conde De Ericeira, na *História de Portugal Restaurado*, Part. I. Liv. III. p. 129, 130. *Memoires d'Ablancourt*, p. 349, 352. *Relation de la Cour de Portugal sous Don Pedre II* Tom. II. p. 510, 511.

(*b*) *Memoires Instru&itifs*, Tom. I. p. 83, 84.

(*c*) Voyez *La Relation de la Cour de Portugal*, sous Don Pedre II. Tom. I. p. 26.

(*d*) The laws of Lamego are to be found in Latin in Anton. Brædæ's *Monarchia Lusitania*, Tom. III. Lib. X. cap.

these

these the states have established the hereditary succession to the throne, in such a manner, that the king is to be succeeded by his sons, according to the right of promogeniture; next by his brother, but not by a brother's son, unless elected; and lastly, by the daughters, yet with this provision that they marry a Portuguese *. This ordinance was confirmed in a diet held at Lisbon, 1641, after the inauguration of John

The succession to the throne.

xiv. fol. 142. and a French translation of them in Rouffet's Supplem. au Corps Univ. Diplom. de Mr. Du Mont, Tom. I. Part. I. p. 37, 38.

* The act concerning the succession to the throne runs thus:

Si habuerit (Dn. Rex Alfonsus) filios varones, vivant et habeant regnum.—Ibunt de isto modo. Pater si habuerit regnum, cum fuerit mortuus, filius habeat, postea nepos, postea filius nepotis, et postea filii filiorum in secula seculorum per semper.

Si fuerit mortuus primus filius, vivente Rege patre, secundus erit Rex; si secundus, tertius; si tertius, quartus; et deinde omnes per istum modum.

Si mortuus sit Rex sine filiis, si habeat fratrem, sit Rex in vita ejus; et cum fuerit mortuus, non erit Rex filius ejus, si non fecerint eum Episcopi & Procuratores et nobiles curiæ Regis. — —

Si Rex Portugalliæ non habuerit masculum, et habuerit filiam, ista erit Regina, postquam Rex fuerit mortuus, de isto modo: non accipiat virum, nisi de Portugal; nobilis, et talis non vocabitur Rex, nisi postquam habuerit de Regina filium varonem: et quando fuerit in congregatione, maritus Reginæ ibit in manu manca, et maritus non ponet in capite corona regni.

Sit ista lex in sempiternum, quod prima filia Regis accipiat maritum de Portugalle, ut non veniat regnum ad estraneos; et si casaverit cum Principe estraneo, non sit Regina, quia nunquam volumus nostrum regnum ire for de Portugallensibus. — —

IV. and explained by the will of king John I. and on this occasion the Roman Jus Representationis was settled in the royal succession (e). In the decrees of this same diet, the states expressly assumed the right of deciding all disputes or contests concerning the succession, and, when necessary, to deprive a bad king of his sovereignty.

S E C T. XVIII.

Majority of
the kings.

The majority of the kings of Portugal is not settled by the laws or prescription. Alphonso I. forcibly took possession of the government when he was eighteen years of age, his mother Teresa having sat at the helm during his minority. Alphonso V. assumed the sceptre at the age of sixteen, though his tutor, and uncle by his father's side, Don Pedro, duke of Coimbra, had laid down the regency two years before (f). King Sebastian began to reign by himself at his entering only on his fourteenth year; whereas Alphonso VI. remained under the guardianship of his mother Louisa de Gusman, till his nineteenth year; but this was

(e) See this Act in Gio. Bat. Birago Avogaro, *Historia della Disunione del Regno di Portogallo dalla Corona di Castiglia*, Lib. III. p. 284, to 301. And in Du Mont, *Corps Univers. Dipl.* Tom. VI. Part I. p. 202, 203.

(f) Hist. of Portugal, in the *Modern Universal History*, Vol. XXII. Lib. XIX.

partly

partly owing to that princess's ambition, and the bodily and mental weakness of her son. It is, however, commonly thought, that a king of Portugal's minority ceases on his entering into the fourteenth year (g). The regency and guardianship were generally appointed by their kings in their last wills, and settled on their consorts; but it appears from the histories of the kings Alphonso V. and Sebastian, that these appointments were not always observed.

S E C T. XIX.

The king's title, at first, was very short; ^{The king's title.} but, in time, became somewhat lengthened. Alphonso I. stiled himself only king of Portugal, in which he was imitated by his three immediate successors; but Alphonso III. added Algarva, which he had conquered from the Moors (b); and Alphonso V. the words, *citra et ultra mare*, to denote his conquests in Africa (i). The Portuguese having, in the reign of king John II. established their dominion in Guinea, that prince took the title of Lord of Guinea (k); and Emanuel, under whom the East-Indies

(g) Thuan. Tom. II. Lib. LXV.

(b) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. Part III. cap. vi. p. 206.

(i) Ibid. cap. xiii. p. 268.

(k) Ibid. Part III. c. xiv. p. 272.

and

and Brazil were discovered and subdued, enlarged his title with many pompous additions, and stiled himself king of Portugal and Algarva, on both sides the ocean in Africa, lord of Guinea and the conquests, and of the navigation and trade to Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India (*l*). This title has ever since been used without any alteration.

In the Portuguese language it runs thus :

Dom — por a Graça de Deos, rey de Portugal e dos Algarves, daquem e dalem mar em Africa, senhor da Guiné e da Conquista, Navegacao e Commercio da Etiopia, Arabia, Persia e da India (*m*).

And in LATIN.

— — — Dei gratia rex Portugaliae et Algarbiorum citra et ultra mare in Africa, dominus Guineæ, Conquisitionis, Navigationis et Commercii Æthiopiæ, Arabiæ, Persiæ, Indiæque (*n*).

Orders and letters from the king to his subjects begin with these words: Eu el

(*l*) Faria y Sousa in Europa Portuguesa, Tom. II. Part IV. cap. i. Sect. XXX.

(*m*) See Corps Universel. Dipl. de Mr. Du Mont, Tom. VI. Part II. p. 370.

(*n*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. Part I. p. 147.

Rey, I the king. And in the subscription, El Rey, The King; without the name *.

The Portuguese monarchs having always deserved well of the papal see, and the church of Rome, pope Benedict XIV. conferred on John V. the honourable appellation of Rex Fidelissimus†; which some are for rendering, Most Faithful, and others as signifying, Most Believing ‡.

S E C T. XX.

The arms of the kingdom of Portugal, ^{Arms.} are, five escutcheons, Jupiter, placed cross-

* This I have seen in several royal warrants and orders.

† The pope's bull of the 23d Dec. 1748, together with the Speech made by his Holiness on that occasion, are to be found in Mem. de Montgon, Tom. VIII. Pieces Justificatives, No. 19.

‡ Pope Pius V. was even in his time for distinguishing king Sebastian with a new title, suitable to his zeal for the Catholic religion, and left it to his own choice. Sebastian answered, none would please him better than; *obedientissimus ecclesie filius*; and a late Portuguese writer says, that the pope did actually confer the said title on that prince and his successors, (Diogo Barboza Machado na colleccam dos documentos e Memorias de Academia real da Historia Portuguesa de 1726. Noticias do 22d Outubro, p. 19, e na Bibliotheca Lusitana, Art. Don Sebastian) but that none of them ever bore it. It is farther very probable, from a passage in the abovementioned speech of the pope, that Benedict XIV. took notice of this circumstance, and instead of the adjective *obedientissimus*, so derogatory to majesty, he conferred on king John V. the surname of *fidelissimus*, as something softer. If this conjecture be well grounded, *fidelissimus* is best rendered by Most Faithful. Gebauer's Hist. of Portugal, written in German.

wife,

wife, each charged with a like number of besants, Luna, placed in saltier, and painted, Saturn, for Portugal; the shield bordered, Mars, charged with seven towers, Sol, with gates, Jupiter, for Algarva. The crest is surmounted with a dragon, Sol; the supporters are likewise two dragons; the dexter holding a banner, Luna, with five escutcheons, Jupiter; and the sinister a banner, Mars, with seven towers, Sol.

This coat of arms is differently explained by different writers (o), but to the Portuguese it is full of miracles and mysteries; for as they believe that at the battle of Ourique Christ appeared to count Alphonso I. and enjoined him to bear these arms; so they make the shields to signify the five Moorish kings who were conquered, and the five besants, Luna, Christ's five wounds*; and all these together, with the five shields, indicate the thirty silver-pieces for which Judas betrayed our Saviour. Farther, the cross-wise position of the five shields and silver-pieces of money, represents Christ's cross; and the dragon on the crest,

(o) Mariana, Lib. X. cap. 17. et Faria y Soufa, in Epit. P. iii. c. ii. p. 182.

* It is in remembrance of these wounds that the kings of Portugal are said to add to their signature of their letters patent, and other instruments, five dots, called *quinas*.

the brazen serpent set up by Moses, as that represented Christ (*p*).

S E C T. XXI.

The Portuguese hold their country to be a kingdom founded by God himself; and this they would prove from a record of their first king Alphonso, where it is affirmed upon oath, that Christ, when he appeared to him before the battle of Ourique, directed him to assume the title of king, at the same time promising to the new kingdom his particular protection and favour (*q*). Thus they account themselves God's particularly beloved people, and his chosen portion, as were formerly the Jews (*r*). And they farther believe, that the fifth monarchy, foretold by the prophet Daniel, is that of Portugal (*s*): likewise, that Isaiah, with other inspired persons, have prophesied, that the Gospel should by them be

Suppositious pre-eminences.

(*p*) See Schmaufs. Part. H. p. 265, 278, where every thing remarkable in the Portuguese arms is described at large.

(*q*) This record, discovered in 1596, in the archives at Alcobara, is to be found in Anton. Brandao, Monarchia Lusitana, Tom. III Lib. X. p. 127; and in Antonii de Sousa de Macedo Lusitana Liberata, p. 96, 97.

(*r*) Gregorio de Almeida na restauracon de Portugal prodigiosa, P. I. chap. v. p. 28.

(*s*) Daniel ch. ii. v. 44. Ant. de Sousa Macedo Lusit. p. 709.

preached to the Moors and Pagans (t). They can even find in the Scriptures the intire succession of the Portuguese kings (u). From these old, and a many more new, miracles and prophecies *, they confidently conclude Portugal to be in a particular manner the care of Divine Providence; and as these imaginations lead them to fancy themselves the principal people in the world, so do they affirm that their kings ought to take place of all others †.

S E C T. XXII.

Portugal
was a fief
and tributa-
ry to the
see of
Rome.

Alphonso, having, as is pretended, assumed the title of king by Christ's immediate command, took care to have it immediately confirmed by his vicegerent the pope; and the more easily to obtain this favour, he submitted his kingdom to be a fief of the

(t) Isaiah, ch. lx. 9. lxvi. 19. Revelations xvi. 12. Vid. Almeida, P. I. c. ii. p. 8, 9, &c.

(u) Esd. Lib. IV. cap. xi. 12. Vid. Almeida, P. I. c. iii. & Ant. Soufa de Maced. Lusit. p. 117.

* The before quoted work of Almeida is quite full of such chimeras, and the author's particular view there is to give an account of the miracles and prodigies, which accompanied the revolution in Portugal, in the year 1640.

† This is peremptorily affirmed by Anton. de Soufa de Macedo in Lusit. Liber. p. 778, 779, were it on no other account than that Christ himself was the immediate founder of the kingdom.

see of Rome, with a promise of paying a yearly tribute *. At first this acknowledgment was duly paid †; but in process of time, the kings of Portugal came to think that they were not obliged to any such acknowledgment ‡.

SECTION XXIII.

Of all the kings of Portugal, only Alphonso I. (x) and Edward were crowned (y). The latter obtained from pope Eugenius IV.

* Alphonso VIII. king of Castile and Leon, accounted Portugal a fief of Leon; and so far from acknowledging the royalty which Alphonso had assumed, declared war against him for his presumption. Under these circumstances, the pope's friendship was absolutely necessary to him: accordingly, in 1142, he applied to Innocent II. for the title of king, and offered to pay to St. Peter, and the see of Rome, an annual tribute of four ounces of gold; and in the following year Innocent acknowledged him as king, on his engaging to pay a yearly tribute of two marks of gold. Vid. Anton. de Sousa de Macedo in Lusitan. Liber. p. 109, 110. and Faria y Sousa, in Eur. Port. Tom. II. P. I. c. iii. n. 32, 33. Pope Alexander III. confirmed this royalty by an express bull of the 23d of May, 1179, which is to be seen in Faria y Sousa, Epit. Part IV. p. 355.

† King Sancho I. refused paying it, which brought on no small disturbance from the pope; but Alphonso II. in 1213, discharged twenty-eight years of arrears with fifty-six marks of gold paid down at once. Gebauer's Hist. of Portugal, Part I. p. 51.

‡ So says Mariana, Lib. IX. c. xx. but Schmaufs. in his State of Portugal, P. II. p. 399. is of opinion that this tribute has not yet been discontinued.

(x) Anton Brandao na Monarch. Lusit. Tom. III. Lib. X. c. 14.

(y) Faria y Sousa, in Europ. Portug. Tom. II. P. III. c. 2.

that he and his successors should be anointed and crowned by the archbishop of Braga (z). But instead of making use of this permission *, they are only proclaimed, and solemnly acknowledged by the states, to whom they take the usual coronation oath, which is returned by doing homage to the sovereign †. These ceremonies are still observed (a).

S E C T. XXIV.

Title of the
king of
Portugal's
eldest son.

The king of Portugal's children formerly were termed Infants, without any distinction; but under king Edward, the eldest son was, by way of pre-eminence, stiled the Prince (b); and lastly, John IV. added the title of prince of Brazil (c); which is still used.

(z) The pope's-brief is in Rouffett's Supplem. au Corps Diplom. Tom. I. P. II. p. 378.

* King John V. on his accession to the crown in 1715, was for being crowned, and many preparations were made, yet the solemnity was never carried into execution.

† The ceremonies and rejoicings on the inauguration of cardinal Henry, are to be found in Heronimo Conestaggio nell' Istoria dell' Unione del Regno di Portugallo alla Corona di Castiglia, Lib. II. fol. 52, 53; and of the occurrences at the accession of John V. a brief account is given in the Ceremonial de Portugal, ch. ii. §. 2. and in the Ceremonial Diplomat. de Mr. Rouffett, Tom. III. p. 377.

(a) New Historical and Genealogical Accounts, P. VIII. p. 687.

(b) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. P. III. cap. xiii.

(c) Don Lewis de Menezes, Conde de Ericeira na Historia de Portugal restaurado, Part. I. Lib. X. p. 235.

S E C T.

S E C T. XXV.

The royal family of Portugal is a branch of that of France, the stem of all the kings of Portugal. Count Henry of Burgundy, was grandson of Robert I. duke of Burgundy, which Robert was grandson * of Hugh Capet. The throne of Portugal has been twice possessed by illegitimate branches ; for king John I. was a natural son of king Peter I. and John IV. grandfather to the present king, was descended from Alphonso I. duke of Braganza, an illegitimate son of the said king John I.

Origin of
the Royal
family.

S E C T. XXVI.

The capital of the kingdom of Portugal, which the kings since John I. have made their constant residence, is Lisboa or Lisbon †. It lies on the north bank of the Tagus, and is built on seven hills, the valleys between them forming the streets,

Lisbon, the
capital and
royal resi-
dence.

* This the Portuguese knew nothing of, till T. Godefroy first laid it open to them in his *Traité de l'Origine des Roys de Portugal issus, en lige masculine de la maison de France qui regne aujourd'huy ; à Paris 1612. 4.*

† Luis de Camoens, the Portuguese Poet, terms Lisbon the princefs of all other cities.—“ Nobre Lisboa que no mundo, facilmente das outras hé Princefa.” Vid. *Os Lusíadas*, Canto III. Oct. 57.

which are a French league in length, but ill paved and very filthy, being never cleaned but on Corpus-Christi day (*d*). On the first of November 1755, it was almost totally destroyed by an earthquake and fire (*e*), and even now is far from having recovered itself.

The principal royal seats to which the court frequently retire, are Belem *, Alcantara, and Mafra †.

S E C T. XXVII.

Officers of
state,

Portugal had formerly many high officers of state, the principal of whom were the constable (Condestable), the marshal (Marishal), the great standard-bearer, (Alferez Mor) (*f*); but in process of time these of-

(*d*) Memoires Instruct. Tom. II. p. 141, &c.

(*e*) Mercure Hist. et Polit. Tom. CCXXXIX. p. 611, &c. Tom. CCXL. p. 24, &c.

* This consists of a village, a fort, and a convent; the last was built by king Emanuel with great magnificence, as the burial-place for the royal family. The Portuguese boast highly of this structure, and say, that Philip II. king of Spain preferred it even to the Escorial. Faria y Sousa, in Eur. Port. Tom. II. Part IV. cap. i. n. 37.

† This most stately structure was erected by king John V, in a wild sandy country, near the small town of Mafra, pursuant to a vow made in a dangerous sickness. The building was carried on with such ardour, that 12,000 workmen were employed in it, and it is said to have cost immense sums. See Memoires Instructifs, Tom. I. p. 183.

(*f*) Concerning these, see Noticias de Portugal de Manoel Severin de Faria, Discurso II. §. 2, 3, 4.

fices were abolished, and only the titles of them made hereditary in some eminent families (*g*). The like has been done with the titles of admiral of Portugal, and admiral of the Indies (*b*).

S E C T. XXVIII.

The principal court-officers are the lord-steward (Mordomo Mor), the lord chamberlain (Camereiro Mor), the lord chief justice of the court (Merinho Mor, or Alguazil Mor) the grand marshal (Apposentador Mor), the master of the horse (Estribeiro Mor), the cup-bearer (Copeiro Mor), the great-huntsman (Monteiro Mor), the first chaplain (Capalam Mor *), the lord-almoner (Esmoler Mor (*i*)).

S E C T. XXIX.

The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, believe that the Gospel was made known to them by the Apostle James the elder † ;

(*g*) Vid. Faria y Sousa, in Epit. Part IV. cap. x. p. 369.

(*b*) Ibid.

* This office was united by king John V. to the patriarchate of Lisbon. See Faria y Sousa, Epit. de las Hist. Portug. P. 444.

(*i*) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. This office, John V. annexed to the Patriarch of Lisbon. See the Brussels edition of the continuation of Faria y Sousa Epitome de las Historias Portuguesas, p. 444.

† Some members, however, of the Royal Academy of History, called this ancient opinion in question, and even

and are no less zealous for the Catholic religion, detesting heretics and all whom they do not look upon as true Catholics. This gave rise to the distinction among them of old Christians (*Christams Velhos*) and new Christians (*Christams Novos*). By the latter they mean the descendants of converted Jews, who are, however, very much suspected; and by the former those of a pure untainted Christian lineage, which in Portugal is a high recommendation (*k*). They pay great devotion to the saints, and particularly St. Antony of Padua* and St. Xavier (*l*); in other respects they give themselves little concern about the essentials of religion, the whole of it consisting in external observances (*m*), in which, however, decency is too frequently disregarded; nay, sometimes

wrote against it; so that the Academy became divided into two parties, till at length the affair was laid before the king, who ordered, that in any writings of the academy concerning St. James's preaching in Spain and Portugal, it should be treated as a doubtful matter, which could neither be well affirmed or denied. *Collecçam dos Documentos e Memorias da Acad. Real de Historia Portug. de 1726, nas noticias do 2. Mayo.*

(*k*) See Schmaufs. Part II. p. 283.

* This is the patron of the city of Lisbon; but in 1756, both the city and the whole kingdom made choice of St. Francis de Borgia as their particular guardian against earthquakes. *Merc. Hist. Polit. Dec. 1756. p. 811.*

(*l*) See Schmaufs. Part II. p. 303, 304, &c.

(*m*) *Memoir. Instruct. Tom. II. p. 146.*

they

they are attended with the most offensive extravagancies §.

S E C T. XXX.

The church of Portugal was formerly ^{Upper clergy.} under the administration of the three archbishops of Braga, Lisbon, and Evora. The first, not satisfied with the primacy of Portugal, is likewise for having that of all Spain; and formerly there used to be violent contests between him and the archbishop of Toledo, who makes a like claim (n). Under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the archbishop of Braga are the dioceses of Porto, Viseu, Coimbra, and Miranda *. The suffragans to the archbishop of Lisbon are, Portalegre, Guarda, Cape de Verd, St. Thomas, and Congo †; and under the archbishop of Evora, are the sees of Elvas and Faro ‡. This establishment was made on the occasion of king John V. erecting Lis-

§ See what the author of the *Memoires Instructifs* says of the processions on Corpus-Christi day, and of the amours in Passion-week, Tom. II. p. 164, 168. Tom. I. p. 135, 136.

(n) See Schmaus. Part. II. p. 284, 285.

* Formerly he had for suffragans the bishops of Porto, Viseu, Guarda, Lamego, Miranda, and Leiria.

† Formerly his diocese comprehended Coimbra, Portalegre, Funchal, on the island of Madera, and Angra in that of Tercera.

‡ This see has been removed hither from Silves.

bon into a patriarchate. For Clement XI. having at the solicitation of that prince, erected the court chapel into an archiepiscopal and metropolitan church in 1716, immediately after conferred on the new archbishop the title and dignity of a patriarch, together with precedence before all archbishops in Portugal, and in the Portuguese East and West-Indies; with many other advantages, particularly annexing the cardinalship to the patriarchate *. But it being fit that the patriarch should have an ecclesiastical jurisdiction, Lisbon was divided between him and the archbishop of that city. The latter retained the Old City, as it was called, with its castle and suburbs; and the former had the west suburbs, or New Lisbon, together with an assignment of twenty thousand dollars per year from the incomes of the archbishopric of Lisbon; and lastly, he had given him as suffragans, Leira, Lamego, Funchal in Madera, and Angra in Tercera, which were taken from the other archbi-

* King John V. who from his childhood was very fond of splendor in divine worship, spent incredible sums on the erection of the patriarchate; and the maintenance of it is said to have cost him more than all his troops. The pomp with which the patriarch of Lisbon celebrates mass, far exceeds that of the pope himself on the most solemn occasions. Mem. Instructifs, Tom. II. p. 163, 165. and Tom. I. p. 213.

shoprics (o). The archbishop of Goa, who is likewise stiled primate of East-India, had formerly a very extensive diocese; but the Portuguese having lost most of their conquests in those countries, his only suffragan is the bishop of Macao.

The archbishop of St. Salvador in Brazil, has under him the bishops of Olinda, St. Sebastian in Rio de Janeiro, and St. Lewis de Maranham. Cape de Verd, St. Thomas, and Congo, were taken from that diocese, and transferred to the archbishop of Lisbon, on the erection of the patriarchate.

S E C T. XXXI.

The king nominates the archbishops and bishops, and the pope confirms them; and till this confirmation, none can take possession of his diocese, or perform his office. Thence it was, that in the year 1640, Portugal having shaken off the Spanish yoke, and the court of Rome, from a fear of Spain, declining to confirm the bishops nominated by the new king John IV. the far greater part of the sees came to be without bishops.

The archbishops and bishops nominated by the king, and confirmed by the pope.

(o) See the Continuation of Faria y Sousa, Epit. de las Historias Portug. p. 444.

One fourth part of the incomes of the Portuguese bishops goes to the king, which he at pleasure disposes of in pensions; but in foreign countries this does not take place, the king there levying the ecclesiastical tythes, and the bishops have no other income than what the king pleases to bestow (*p*).

S E C T. XXXII.

The great
power of the
pope in
Portugal.

There is no catholic kingdom in Europe, where the pope's power is so great as in Portugal: his bulls, by virtue of an agreement between king John II. and pope Innocent VIII. are of force here, without any examination of the king's council (*q*). The pope's nuncio at Lisbon has his peculiar tribunal, to which all the clergy in Portugal are amenable, and from which there is no appeal, except only to the see of Rome. With this spiritual power and jurisdiction are connected a great many temporal advantages. The pope has his apostolical receiver, as he is called, within the kingdom, who levies imposts on clergy and laity. Bulls and collations, which must be applied for at

(*p*) See Schmaufs. Part II. p. 295.

(*q*) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. P. III. cap. xiv. Eman. Telles de Reb. Gest. Joannis II. p. 153.

Rome,

Rome, run away with prodigious sums *, and the monies for appeals and dispensations, together with those which the nuncio draws from the country †, is likewise no inconsiderable matter ; so that, according to some writers, the see of Rome has a greater income from Portugal than the king himself, deducting the necessary expences of government (r).

This excessive power of the pope in Portugal is partly owing to the first king, Alphonso Henriquez, having made his kingdom tributary to the see of Rome, and partly to the disputes which his four first successors had with the clergy concerning the liberties of the church ; in which they were so firmly supported by the pope, that king Denis, at last, was obliged to come to a very disadvantageous agreement, renouncing all jurisdiction over the church (s). Since that time the papal power in Portugal has

* The archbishop of Evora pays to Rome no less than 90,000 dollars before he can take possession of his dignity. Relation de la Cour de Portugal sous Don Pedre II. Tom. II. ch. i. p. 265.

† The nuncio in Portugal makes money of every thing, selling so much as the monk's cells. The nuncio Biechi, who was afterwards cardinal, made a fortune of 35,000 Roman scudi before he left Portugal. Mem. Inst. Tom. II. p. 138.

(r) Relation de la Cour de Port. sous D. Pedre II. Tom. II. c. i. p. 26, 268.

* See an Hist. Account of the Disputes between the kings of Portugal and the see of Rome, in Germ. p. 8, 52.

stood

stood firm and unshaken, and the kings on all occasions shewed themselves very obedient sons of the holy see. They have, however, of late something departed from their implicit submission; and both Peter II (*t*). and John V. (*u*) and especially his present majesty Joseph, have on several occasions resolutely asserted their rights against the papal encroachments.

S E C T. XXXIII.

Inquisition.

The pope's refusal, after the famous revolution in Portugal in the year 1640, to confirm the bishops nominated by the new king John IV. gave a fair opportunity for casting off the papal yoke; and things looked as if the opportunity would have been embraced: but the inquisition declared against every thing of such a tendency, and thus secured that authority, which was tottering (*x*). The inquisition had been first introduced by John III *. It has three courts

(*t*) Relat. de la Cour de Port. Tom. II. c. i. p. 320.

(*u*) Historic. Account of the Disputes, in Germ. p. 134.

(*x*) Relat. de la Court de Port. Tom. II. c. i. p. 272, 303.

* And this, as some reputable authors relate, through the artifice of a cheat, one Juan de Saavedra, who pretended to be an extraordinary envoy from the pope. See Faria y Sousa in Europa Port. Tom. II. Part. IV. cap. ii. n. 34, 38. and Memoires de Portugal du Chevalier d'Oliveira, Tom. I. ch. xi. p. 301, 302.

in Portugal, namely, at Lisbon, Evora, and Coimbra. Under the first is the province of Estremadura, part of Beira, together with the Portuguese foreign possessions on this side the Cape of Good Hope. Within the jurisdiction of the second, are the province of Alen-Tejo and Algarva. The third comprehends the provinces of Entre Douro e Minho, Tras os Montes, and the other part of Beira. There is likewise an inquisition at Goa, to which are subject all the possessions of the Portuguese in Asia and Africa, as far as the Cape of Good Hope*; but Brazil has no inquisition.

The constitution of the Portuguese courts of inquisitions is entirely the same as in Spain. The supreme tribunal of inquisition at Lisbon has the superintendency of them; otherwise, they are all mutually independent (y). Their proceedings against prisoners are kept so close, that not the

* For these particulars, see *Collecção dos Documentos e Memorias da Acad. Real da Hist. Port.* l. c. p. 379, 380. In these it farther appears, that the first inquisition was set up at Evora, by John III. with the advice of his confessor the bishop of Ceuta; and those at Lisbon, Coimbra, and Goa, by the king's brother cardinal Henry. Of the impostor Juan de Saavedra, not a word is mentioned.

(y) See Schmaufs. Part. II. p. 310, 311. *Memoir. Instruções.* Tom. II. p. 143.

least intelligence concerning them transpires (2).

The Portuguese inquisition formerly proceeded not only with extreme rigour, but likewise with the most flagrant injustice against the new Christians, or converted Jews (a). Some kings, and even popes, endeavoured to moderate such abuses, but without effect *; till at length John V. and his son the present king Joseph have so far restrained the excessive power of the inquisition, that it ceases to be such an object of terror as formerly †. Great numbers of

(2) Vid Noticias reconditas posthumas del procedimiento de las Inquisiciones de España y Portugal, Parte I. p. 1. e Collecção dos Documentos e Memórias da Academia Real da História Portuguesa de 1723, na Notícia General das Santas Inquisições do Reino de Portugal, p. 383.

(a) Noticias recondit. Parte II. p. 43, 44.

* King John IV. ordered, that the goods of persons imprisoned by the inquisition should not be liable to confiscation; but on his demise, this order was no longer regarded. (Noticias reconditas, Parte II. p. 44, 47.) Peter II. applied to the pope for his assistance to bring the inquisition into order; but that tribunal found means to set the two courts at variance, and thus totally frustrated the design. Ibid. p. 50, 55. Pope Innocent XI. sent to the inquisition a mandate for abating its severity against the new Christians, but they made light of it. Ib. p. 31—37. And as little obsequiousness did they shew to pope Benedict XIII. when he was prescribing certain forms to be observed in their processes. Account of the Disputes between the king of Portugal and the pope.

† John V. ordered, that the sentences of the inquisition should be laid before the courts of judicature for examination, and that the prisoners should be allowed council for their defence; likewise, that no foreigner should be impris-

English, and other Protestants, live in Portugal in an open profession of their religion, without any molestation on that account (*b*); the objects of the inquisition being only Jews, heretics, blasphemers, sodomites, polygamists, and adulterers (*c*).

An Auto de Fé is a high festival among the Portuguese; and on these occasions it is that their superstition and hatred against other religions appear in all their extravagancy (*d*).

S E C T. XXXIV.

The multitude of religious orders with which Portugal swarms, contributes, like the inquisition, to the support and strength of the papal authority. Of these orders, the principal and most opulent were the Jesuits *, whom John III. admitted

Religious
orders in
Portugal.

soned without his permission. (Mem. Instruct. Tom. I. p. 141, 146.) King Joseph went a step farther, and gave orders that no capital sentence should be carried into execution, unless signed by himself. New Genealogical Historical Accounts, Part VIII. p. 692.

(*b*) *Memoires Instructifs*, Tom. I. p. 146.

(*c*) *Ibid.* p. 139, 141, 145, 147, 148.

(*d*) *Ibid.* Tom. I. p. 158, 159.

* Faria y Sousa in *Epit.* Part. III. c. xvi. Part. IV. c. ix. says, that the Jesuits were in his time possessed of above two hundred thousand ducats a year within Portugal and its dependencies, and this sum must have been considerably increased.

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the first of all Christian princes, with a view of employing them in missions to the Indies (*e*). But these fathers having in 1752 instigated the Paraguay Indians their converts, to an open insurrection against settling the limits in that country between the crowns of Spain and Portugal; and in 1758 being deeply engaged in a plot against the king (*f*); they were banished for ever out of Portugal, and all the Portuguese dominions (*g*).

The number of religious houses in Portugal, though not easy to ascertain, is very great *. The capital of all is the

(*e*) Maffei Hist. Ind. Lib. XII. p. 526, 527. Vasconcell. Anacephalaeos. Actorum Reg. Lusit. p. 287.

(*f*) See Mr. Harrenberg's History of the Order of Jesuits, written in German.

(*g*) Ibid.

* Some compute them at nine hundred; Schmaufs at eight hundred and seventy; but herein he is mistaken, for want of rightly understanding Faria y Sousa, on whom he founds his calculation, and who having (in Epit. p. 364, 365.) given a list of the convents of the several orders, adds, that the Jesuits, who came last to work in the vineyard, had, more houses than all the other orders put together, and larger incomes, amounting to above 200,000 ducats. Lastly, he says, that this account relates only to the kingdom of Portugal, in which he found 450 convents, exclusive of the conquered countries. The last words Mr. Schmaufs applying to the Jesuits, gives them 450 convents in Portugal only; to which he adds those belonging to the other orders, which makes a total of 870. From this remark it will appear, that in Faria y Sousa's time, which was about the year 1626, the number of convents in all Portugal were no more than 450; so that to be raised to 900, speaks a prodigious increase.

Cister-

Cistercian monastery at Alcobaza, which was founded and richly endowed by Alphonso I.

Difficult as it is to ascertain the number of religious people, a certain writer takes it for granted that the whole body of the clergy in Portugal, with their dependents, may fairly be reckoned one half of the kingdom, and that they are possessed of more than two thirds of the country (*i*). Both these accounts seem to exceed.

Great number and wealth of the clergy.

S E C T. XXXV.

The religious orders of knighthood in Portugal are three: that of Avis, St. James, and of Christ; and all have large revenues.

Religious orders of knighthood.

The first was founded under king Alphonso I. about the year 1147, and derives its name from the city of Avis, granted to it, as the seat of the order, by Alphonso II. At first it was under the Spanish order of Calatrava, but king John I. raised it from this subjection. It is said to consist of seventy-three commanderies, which bring in annually 67350 Ducados de Plata (*k*).

(*i*) Relation de la Cour de Portugal, sous Don Pedre H. Tom. II. ch. i. p. 265.

(*k*) About 18000 l. T. Roderigo Mendez Sylva, en Catalogo Real y Genealogico de España, fol. 52, 53.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The order of St. James some likewise hold to have been brought from Spain into Portugal under Alphonso I. and that, at first, the grand-master of Castile was its chief, till king Dennis, in the year 1290, detached it from Spain, and gave it a grand-master of its own: its commanderies are sixty, with an annual income of 120,000 ducats.

The order of Christ was instituted by king Dennis in the year 1319*, who obtained the ratification of it from pope John XXII. This order is the principal of the three, and the most opulent, having 454 commanderies; the annual income of which amounts to 250,000 Ducados de Plata, tho' some make it 500,000 (*m*).

The capital vow of all these orders of knighthood was to make war against the Moors, for which they have at present no opportunity. The knights of the first and third made likewise a vow of chastity; but at the solicitation of king Emanuel, this was remitted to them by pope Alexander VI. with permission to marry (*n*).

* A Spanish comedy quoted by the countess D'Aunoy, *Relation du Voyage d'Esp.* Tom. III. Letter XI. gives a very entertaining account of the origin of the Order of Christ.

(*m*) Sylva, fol. 59. b. et 60. a. Schmaufs, Part. II. p. 355. &c.

(*n*) See his bull of the 20th of June, 1496. in Leibnitii Cod. J. G. Diplom. p. 475.

grand-

The grand-masterships of these three orders were annexed to the crown by John III. who, in 1531, obtained a bull for that purpose from Julius III (o). But when the kings of Spain came to be masters of Portugal, they gave each order its respective grand-master (p): and this of late has sometimes been done even by the kings of Portugal.

The knights of St. John, or Malta, have likewise several commanderies in Portugal; and their chief is the grand prior of Crato, whom the king nominates (q). The commanderies both of this and the three other orders are likewise in the king's gift; and not a few of them have been conferred hereditarily on some families, in reward of eminent services (r).

S E C T. XXXVI.

The spiritual yoke under which the Portuguese continue to groan, has affected the sciences, which, by reason of the too strict restraints laid on freedom of thought, can-

State of the sciences, and universities in Portugal.

(o) Collecçam dos Docum. e Memor. da Acad. Real da Hist. Port. de 1722. no Catalogo dos Mestres e Administradores da Ordem de Avis.

(p) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. Part. IV. c. 9.

(q) Ibid. Likewise Relation de la Cour De Port. Tom. I. p. 33.

(r) Memoires d'Ablancourt, p. 176, 177. and Relation de la Cour de Port. Tom. I. p. 33.

not thrive ; though the nation has both an adequate disposition and capacity (*s*). In Portugal there are two universities, Coimbra and Evora. The former was founded by king Dennis on his obtaining a bull for that purpose from pope Nicholas IV. in 1290 at Lisbon, but afterwards removed to Coimbra ; from which place Alphonso IV. brought it again to Lisbon ; and at length John III. translated it a second time to Coimbra ; inviting the most learned persons in Europe thither, which brought it into great reputation. It has six professorships of divinity, six of canon law, and eight for the civil Roman law ; likewise six for physic, one for the mathematics, and one for music, besides several others for the languages and philosophy, which was formerly much cultivated here. The second, at Evora, was erected in 1558, by cardinal Henry, afterwards king ; and teaches only divinity and philosophy, grammar, and rhetoric. The Portuguese speak very highly of these universities, and particularly of the former (*u*) ;

(*s*) Preface to the Chevalier d'Oliveira's *Memoirs of Portugal*.

(*t*) Manoel Severim de Faria nas noticias de Portugal, p. 206.

(*u*) Pedro de Mariz *Dialogos de Varia Historia*, Dial. V. c. ii. Faria I. c. p. 207,

but

but late accounts represent them as in a very indifferent condition (x).

S E C T. XXXVII.

King John V. was a great patron of the sciences; and in imitation of other European countries, erected several academies in his kingdom for their advancement. The principal is the Academy of Portuguese history at Lisbon *; and king Joseph instituted an Academy of Sciences at Tomar, on the model of that at Paris (y). There are, besides, several other literary societies in Portugal; the chief object of whose studies are the improvement of the Portuguese language, grammar, oratory, and poetry. Among these are, Academia dos Singulares, dos Generosos, dos Anonymos; farther,

Academies
and literary
societies in
Portugal.

(x) Mem. Instruct, Tom. I. p. 195.

* It was founded on the 8th of December 1720, under the title of Academia Real da Historia da Portugueza. Of its foundation and constitution a full account has been written by its secretary the marquis of Alegrete, in his Historia da Academia Real da Historia Portugueza, Tom. I. The Academy entered on its labours with great zeal and application, and has published the history of its meetings, and the memoirs read at them, together with several historical dissertations in a large collection, intitled, Collecçam dos Documentos in Memorias da Academia Real da Historia Portugueza: Lisboa 1721, and the following years, fol. between which time and 1736, fourteen volumes have appeared.

(y) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, Part XL. p. 325.

Academia Portugueza; dos Instantaneos, dos Applicados, dos Estudiosos, dos Canoros; and lastly, the Academia dos Problematicos, which is at St. Ubes (x).

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Portuguese
poets.

These Societies foment the general love and disposition of the Portuguese for poetry, which is so great, that, as Faria y Sousa says, every stream in Portugal was a Hippocrene, and every hill a Parnassus (a). Among their celebrated poets, and these form a large body, is king Dennis (b), and his natural son Alphonso Sanchez, with many other eminent personages (c). But Luis de Camoens bears the palm from them all, and is accounted the Virgil of Portugal *.

S E C T. XXXIX.

Philosophy
and divinity.

The school philosophy has been the more able to maintain its sway in Portugal, as

(x) See Letters from a learned Portuguese on the State of the Sciences in Portugal, in the *Hamburgh Weekly Literary Correspondent*, 1763. N^o III. and IV.

(a) *Epit. de las Hist. Portug.* P. IV. c. xv.

(b) Bern. de Brito nos *Elogios dos Reis de Portugal*, p. 33.

(c) See the list of the Portuguese writers in Faria y Sousa, *Epit.* P. IV. c. xv.

* It was he who composed the celebrated Epic poem, *Os Lusíadas*, on the discovery of the East-Indies, which to this day is cried up by the Portuguese as an incomparable masterpiece. See Voltaire's Essay on Epic poetry.

the

the frequent and severe censures to which new books and writings are subject, render the propagation of any new or strange doctrines almost impossible. A certain writer says, that the errors which Des Cartes and Newton have driven out of other European countries, have fled for shelter into the Portuguese schools; and that their names, and those of other reformers of the philosophic sciences, are execrated in Portugal, as those of heretics and blasphemers (*d*). If in such circumstances it be so very difficult to introduce any innovations in philosophy, no less difficult and much more dangerous must it be to attack, though indirectly, theological tenets which have received the sanction of councils.

S E C T. XL.

The Roman law is the capital study of the Portuguese lawyers; and some have acquired such a reputation therein, as to have been called to teach it in Spanish and French universities. A few, however, have addicted themselves to the common

Jurisprudence,

(*d*) Mr. Busching, in his description of Portugal, cites this from a book written by an Italian capuchin, 1746, and entitled, Verdadeiro Methodo de Estudar.

laws

laws of the land, and practical jurisprudence *.

S E C T. XLI.

Phyfc.

No great medical improvements can be expected in Portugal; the late discoveries in philosophy, phyfic, anatomy, and chemistry, being for the most part unknown in that kingdom.

Upon the whole, the state of sciences in this part of Europe is, in general, far from being on the same happy footing as in other countries, tho' intire books are filled with only the names of Portuguese writers †.

S E C T. XLII.

Laws.

Portugal was once a part of Spain, and had the same laws; but since it became a distinct kingdom, the kings have occasionally made laws, which Emanuel caused to be digested and made publick in one col-

* Concerning this class of writers, see Buder's Biblioth. Jur. Select. c. vi. §. 4.

† Nic. Antonius's Bibliotheca Hispana likewise gives an account of the celebrated Portuguese literati and their works; but a far more stately monument has been erected to them by their countryman Abbot Diogo Barbosa Machado, in his Bibliotheca Lusitana, printed at Lisbon in the Portuguese language, 1747, 1749, 1752.

lection, with the title of, *Ordenanças de Portugal* (e). The laws of the succeeding kings were, by order of Philip II. collected and published by the celebrated George Azavedo : but besides these, which are called the royal law, the civil law takes place likewise in Portugal * ; and in cases where the royal law is either silent, or does not clearly decide, it directs the sentence, but in all may be introduced as a comment (f). In affairs relating to the church or clergy, the pontifical law is the rule of conduct.

S E C T. XLIII.

Portugal consists of six provinces ; each of them, relatively to the administration of ^{Inferior courts of justice.} justice, is called a *Comarca*, and divided into several *Corregedorias* or *Correioens*. Of these, in the *Comarca Entre Douro e Minho*, there are four ; in that of *Tras os Montes*, likewise four ; in that of *Beira*,

(e) Arthur Duck de *Ufu et Authoritate Juris Civilis*, Lib. II. c. vii. §. 9. et Buder. in *Biblioth. Jur. Select.* c. vi. §. 4.

* King John I. had Justinian's Code translated by his secretary John Das Negras. Faria y Sousa, in *Europa Port.* Tom. II. P. III. cap. i. and the lawyers assembled at Coimbra, even decided by the civil law the disputes concerning the succession on the demise of king Henry. See Duck. l. c. §. 13, 16.

(f) Duck, *ibid.* l. c. §. 10, 11.

fix ;

fix; Estremadura, six; Alen-Tejo, five; and in that of Algarvas, two. The Corregedorias are held in the cities (Cidades); and under each of these are the villas and small towns, with certain districts comprehending a number of villages, and termed Conselhos de Juridição. Every Corregedoria has its judge, (Corregedor); and in all places there are many other officers of justice, with various titles, according to their employments; as Ouvidores, Provedores, Jzses de Civel, de Crimen, &c. (g).

Upper
courts.

These are lower courts, from which an appeal lies to the two upper courts; the first and principal of which is held at Lisbon, with the title of Casa de Supplicação; the other, which likewise was set up at Lisbon, was by Philip II. removed to Porto, and is called Conselho de Relação. Between these two high courts the whole kingdom is divided; yet with appeal from the latter to the former, in causes exceeding a hundred milrees *. The president of the former is called Regedor, and of the

(g) Faria y Sousa, in Epit. P. IV. c. xii.

* According to Faria y Sousa; yet, by an edict of king Peter II. 1696, no appeal is allowed of but when the value of the cause exceeds 250 milrees in immoveables, and 300 in moveables.

latter

latter Governador. Both, besides many assessors, have a great number of other officers, (b); so many that the multitude of judges and law officers may in general be reckoned a great oppression of the people †.

S E C T. XLIV.

The Portuguese in the sixteenth century, made several important conquests in East-India, which at the same time gained them great reputation, and improved their military knowledge and discipline: but this was of short continuance; for the unfortunate expedition of king Sebastian to Africa, destroyed the whole military force of the Portuguese; and the kingdom soon after falling under the Spanish dominion, has never yet recovered itself. On the revolution in 1640, king John IV. was obliged to raise an intire new army; and this would scarce have been able to have kept him and his successors on the throne, without the French and English auxiliaries under count

Military force.

(b) Faria y Sousa, P. IV. cap. xii.

† Faria y Sousa, l. c. p. 377, says, that till the time of king John, four Corregedores served for the whole kingdom; and that afterwards these, with other officers of justice, increased to a prodigious number. He adds, that if six people happened to meet together, one, or sometimes two, or even three, were lawyers.

Schomberg ; yet the Portuguese arrogantly attribute the several advantages obtained in this war to their own valour and capacity *.

In the long peace which followed this war, the Portuguese discipline sunk into a total relaxation ; so that in the war for the Spanish succession, little or nothing was done by them but in conjunction with the English and Dutch auxiliaries. On the peace of Utrecht, John V. reduced his forces to 13000 men ; and towards the conclusion of his reign they did not exceed 8000 (i). Besides, many strange abuses had crept in†, and such as must necessarily be of bad consequence. King Joseph on his accession to

* The Academia dos Generosos, on occasion of the victory over Don John of Austria at Almeixial in 1663, published at Amsterdam, in 1673, a large quarto of Latin, Spanish, and Portuguese, panegyrics on the Count de Villa Flor, the Portuguese general, with this title ; *Applausos Academicos e relaçao da felice successo da celebre victoria de Almeixial*. Whatever self-love and arrogance could suggest on such an occasion, is here displayed in the most inflated sustian ; for instance, p. 110.

Lyfia—quondam fama vulgata per orbem.
Innumeris plena exuviis, onerata triumphis,
Claraque tot bellis, quot non gens ulla—

And, p. 123.

Lyfiæ gens inclyta, Martis
Grandis honos, decus Augustum, immortale theatrum
Bellandi, quoties Mars impius acuit iram.

(i) See New Genealogical Historical Accounts.

† Among these abuses it must not be omitted, that lieutenancies and ensigncies were given to the very lackeys of the upper nobility, who yet continued in their services as before. See Mem. Instit. Tom. p. 45, 46. Tom II. p. 130.

his

his government made it his first care to restore military discipline, and fill up the complement of his army. In the year 1760 it consisted of twenty-two regiments of foot, six of cuirassiers and four of dragoons, making with the artillery about twenty thousand men. In 1762 a Spanish war caused it to be farther augmented; and even after the peace, it was, according to the public accounts, completed to 40,000 men, who were trained to the Prussian discipline.

Portugal has several fortified places on the Spanish frontiers, but which in the latter years of king John V. were in a ruinous condition. Towards Gallicia are Viana, Valenza, Caminha; towards Leon, Miranda de Douro, Guarda, Castello Branco; and on the borders of Estremadura stand Estremos, Evora, Elvas.

Fortified places.

S E C T. XLV.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans who made discoveries in the Atlantic Ocean; and their possessing themselves of Brazil, together with the extensive conquests in the East-Indies, naturally produced a naval force, which in the sixteenth century became

Marine.

came considerably augmented. But falling under the Spanish dominion, and being thereby intangled in the wars of that crown, and particularly in that against the United-Netherlands, they lost the best part of their East-India possessions, and likewise of their trade to that continent, to the great weakening of their naval force. Farther, the Spaniards during their sixty years dominion deprived Portugal of almost all its men of war, and all its cannon *. Thus, till the time of the revolt by which John IV. was raised to the throne, the Portuguese marine lay totally neglected, and has never since risen to any consideration †. In the last years of John V. it was in such decline, as not to be able to protect the coast of Portugal against the depredations of pirates (k). This disgrace roused king Joseph immediately to take in hand the augmentation of the navy, and to put the management of it

* Anton. de Sousa de Macedo in *Lusitania Liberata*, cap. vii. p. 536, says, that the Spaniards carried away out of Portugal above three hundred large ships, and two thousand pieces of cannon.

† See *Relation de la Cour de Portugal sous Don Pedre II.* p. 59, 60, where we find that at that time, the whole kingdom did not afford above 300 seamen, and that the king's ships were manned with soldiers.

(k) See *New Genealogical Historical Accounts*, Part I. p. 32. Part. VII. p. 656.

on a better footing (*l*). In the year 1760, the Portuguese navy consisted of fifteen ships, third, fourth, and fifth rates, carrying seven hundred and sixty-four guns, two thousand four hundred and sixteen marines, and three hundred gunners. The usual station of the men of war is Lisbon harbour, the entrance of which is strongly guarded by several forts (*m*).

S E C T. XLVI.

The Portuguese reckon by reis *, and coins millereis, or a thousand reis; though these are only imaginary pieces; and sometimes by crusadoes, which in exchange go for 400 reis.

The Real Coins are,

i. G O L D.

		Value	Reis.
Dobras	— —	—	24,000
Half ditto	— —	—	12,000
Moedas de Ouro †	— —	—	4800
Half ditto	— —	—	2400

(*l*) See New Genealogical Historical Accounts, Part I. p. 691.

(*m*) See Memoires Instruct. Tom. I. p. 44.

* Or properly Reals, the plural of Real.

† Commonly called Moidores, or Lisbonines.

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Quarter ditto	—	—	Reis. 1200
Tenth ditto †	—	—	480

Since the year 1722 have been coined on a lower standard,

Dobras	—	—	Value	Reis. 12800
Half ditto	—	—		6400
Quarter ditto	—	—		3200
Eighths, likewise called Escudos				1600
Half Escudos	—	—		800
Quartos	—	—		400

2. SILVER.

Patacas	—	—	Value	Reis. 600
Crufados Novos	—	—		480
Half Ditto	—	—		240
Quarter ditto	—	—		120
Testoes *	—	—		100
Half ditto	—	—		50
Vintes	—	—		20

3. COPPER.

Pieces of ten, five, three, one, and $\frac{1}{2}$ reis.

† These are also called Crufados Novos. The first crufados were coined by king Alphonso V. on his design of going a croisade to Palestine; they were of the finest gold, and two grains heavier than the ducats of those times. Noticias de Portug. p. 182.

* These are so called from the Testons, a French coin, and the appellation of which came from the heads in the impres-

Mil-

Millereis are in Hamburg bank-money, three marks seven schillings three pfennings: in Saxon money, one dollar seventeen groffes eight pfennings.

The royal mint is at Lisbon, and to it is delivered all the gold coming from Brazil, but under very bad management (*n*).

S E C T. XLVII.

The revenues of the crown were at first ^{Revenue} very small (*o*), till the East-India trade and foreign conquests raised them to a considerable amount; but the greater part of this trade, and of the conquered countries, being lost under the Spanish government, besides the alienation of many of the demesnes, the revenue became very much diminished *. In order to set it on a tolerable footing after the revolution in the year 1640, some additional taxes became necessary, by which, however, every thing was so exhausted, as scarce to leave room for farther imposts on any future exigency †. The

tion of them. Faria nas Noticias de Portug. Disc. IV. §. 31. p. 186.

(*n*) Memoir. Instruēt. Tom. II. p. 158, 159.

(*o*) See Faria y Soufa, in Epit. P. IV. c. iv. p. 354.

* Faria y Soufa, in Epit. Part IV. c. iv. p. 354, reckons the revenue of Portugal, under the Spanish government, at above 4,000,000 of ducats.

† King Peter II. in the year 1697, having demanded of the states of the kingdom a tax for the augmentation of the army, they declared to him, and not till after half a year's

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

amount of the present revenues is computed at nineteen millions of crusados. The sources from which they chiefly arise are these :

1. The hereditary estates of the house of Braganza, which formerly made one third of the whole kingdom.

2. The royal demesnes.

3. Duties, which are very high, being above twenty per cent. on all goods imported.

4. Land-tax.

5. The excise on wine, flesh, and fish, which is considerable, and brings in the more, as the clergy themselves are likewise obliged to pay it.

6. The monopoly of Brazil tobacco.

7. The coinage.

8. The Croisade-bull, by which a very lucrative trade in indulgences is carried on, to the advantage of the crown *.

deliberation, that they could not contrive any other imposts, the people being already so loaded, that nothing more could be laid on them. *Relat. de la Cour de Portug. Tom. I. c. i.*

* This indulgence-traffic was first introduced by king Philip I. who procured the croisade-bull, which he had obtained from pope Gregory XIV. in the year 1591 for maintaining the Portuguese forts and garrisons on the coasts of Africa, to be renewed every three years; and his successors have not been wanting to do the like. This croisade-bull properly contains three distinct bulls, namely, 1. The bull for the living; by which the purchaser procures the full pardon of sins, with many other spiritual privileges or immunities. *Vid.*

9. The

9. The grand masterships of the orders of knighthood, which since king John III. have been annexed to the crown.

10. The ecclesiastical tithes in the dependencies of Portugal.

11. The fifth of the Brazil gold, and the farm money paid by the Diamond Company there (q).

12. The goods of persons condemned by the inquisition *.

13. The tenth penny paid for all goods and things sold, grain excepted, called Almorifazgo. From this the clergy, the nobility, and the knights of orders are exempt (r).

Explication de la Bula de la Santa Cruzada por Fra. Manuel Rodriguez, fol. 7. 1601. 2. The bull for the dead, by which the buyer can deliver one or more souls out of purgatory. Rodriguez, fol. 160, 164; and 3. The bull of composition, which quieted the conscience of those who had defrauded or robbed others; at the same time retaining the ill-gotten goods. Rodriguez, fol. 164, 190. The bull is notified from the pulpit, and recommended to the people by the priests. A commissary-general, appointed for that purpose, causes printed copies of the three bulls to be sold by his agents, who are spread all over the kingdom; and the pope comes in likewise for a share of the produce. See Relation de la Cour de Portugal, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 34, 57. The bull itself is to be found in Tom. II. p. 521.

(q) See above, §. 7.

* Very little of these confiscations coming into the king's treasury, king John IV. put a stop to them by an express ordinance; but the inquisition opposed it; and on the king's demise it was no longer observed. Vid. Noticias Reconditas del Procedimiento de las Inquisiciones, p. 44, 45, &c.

(r) See Schmaufs, Part II. p. 462.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

King John V. though in his reign the revenue received a great addition by the Brazil gold and diamonds, left debts to a very considerable amount.

S E C T. XLVIII.

Agriculture.

The Portuguese are no less negligent of agriculture than the Spaniards, as too mean, and not profitable enough for their avidity; on which account they generally betake themselves to trade or the sea, as offering greater profits; and thus flock to their foreign settlements to make their fortunes. This passion for trade is so universal, that all the ordinances made by the government for the increase of agriculture, have remained without effect, and a great part of the country lies quite uncultivated (r).

S E C T. XLIX.

Manufactures.

Though the Portuguese have great quantities of fine wool, silk, and several metals, and get many commodities from their dependencies, which might be turned to great advantage in manufactures and fabrics, yet, instead of working them up, they export

(r) See Schmaufs, Part II. p. 462.

every

every thing raw; for linen and sweetmeats excepted, scarce any thing used to be made in Portugal (*t*). The manufactures lately erected *, and even the fabric of looking-glass, though begun in the king's name, soon dropped for want of support †.

S E C T. L.

This deficiency of manufactures hinders the domestic trade of the kingdom from rising to any degree of importance. Domestic

S E C T. LI.

Its foreign trade indeed is very large, and foreign trade comprehending all the four parts of the world. The Portuguese, however, like the in Europe. Spaniards, instead of being their own carriers to foreign countries, leave other nations to bring their goods to them. These are chiefly grain, cloths, and other woollen and silk manufactures, gold and silver tissues,

(*t*) See Schmaufs, Part II. p. 425, 426.

* It is said in Memoir. Instruct. Tom. I. p. 207, 208, that the town of Cavilham had above a thousand looms for making woollen stuffs and stockings; but that for reasons of state, they were suffered to go to decay.

† In the said Memoir. Instruct. Tom. II. p. 160, it is said, that the English would not be quiet till they had totally overthrown this fabric, and that they watched all opportunities to defeat every foundation which might hurt their trade.

linens, laces, and manufactures of every kind, down to trinkets, toys, and things of the lowest value. In return they receive from the Portuguese, salt, wine, oil, and variety of fruits; East and West-India goods, as pearls, diamonds, Brazil-wood, and tobacco, indigo, sugar, spices and drugs (*u*). But all come very short of the foreign manufactures brought into Portugal; so that the balance must be made up with large sums of money, of which the greater part goes to the English *.

The principal trading cities and sea-ports are, Lisbon, Porto, and St. Ubes.

S E C T. LII.

Trade to
the other
parts of the
world;

The Portuguese formerly were in possession of the whole trade to Africa and the East-Indies, which they extended along the west and east coast of Africa, to Arabia and Persia; and from thence along the whole southern coast of Asia to China; and through all the islands of the Indian sea as far as Japan. But this immense trade was in a

(*u*) *Memoires et Considerations sur le Commerce et les Finances d'Espagne*, Tom. II. ch. xi. p. 261, 262.

* Mr. de Real says in the place above quoted, that no less than twenty-five millions (by which he probably means French livres) go every year out of Portugal to England.

great

great measure lost whilst Portugal was under the Spanish dominion; and now is reduced within such a narrow compass, that the Portuguese trade only to the coast of Guinea for slaves, gold and ivory, and to what few places remain to them in the East-Indies, but chiefly to Goa and Macao: hence the principal article is the trade to Brazil, which not only supplies them with many valuable commodities, but likewise takes off great quantities of European merchandize (*).

S E C T. LIH.

Feliciano Velho Oldenburg, who held ^{Trading companies,} the tobacco farm a long time, obtained in the year 1753, a patent from king Joseph for an exclusive trade to Macao and Goa, empowering him successively to send five ships to the first place, and to the second eleven, within ten years, paying the king a certain sum for each ship. But such an undertaking requiring a great deal of money, Oldenburg divided an adequate capital into shares, and admitted other merchants into partnership with him; reserv-

(*) M. de Real Science du Gouv. P. I. Tom. XI. p. 119.

ing to himself the conduct and administration of the whole trade in his own name (y).

In like manner the king, in 1755, granted to a company of merchants the exclusive trade to Maranhão and Great Para for twenty years, with the privilege of being immediately subject to him and no other court, with two men of war to convoy their fleet. The body of Lisbon merchants strongly remonstrated against this company, but without effect (z).

S E C T. LIV.

Administra-
tion of go-
vernment.

The administration of state affairs is conducted by several councils or boards, of which the following are the principal,

1. Conselho de Estado, the council of state, instituted by king Sebastian, in imitation of that of Spain. This assembly takes cognizance of all important affairs, domestic and foreign. The king himself is the president, and nominates as many counselors as he pleases. One of the most considerable persons in the council of state is, the Escrivam da Puridade, or privy secretary of state, yet he has no vote in it. All

(y) New Genealogical Historical Accounts, Part LIII. p. 471.

(z) Ibid. Part LXXIV. p. 135.

petitions and informations to the king pass through his hands; and through them likewise return the royal answers and determinations. On account of the multiplicity of business, he has several under-secretaries and clerks.

2. Conselho de Guerra, council of war, which superintends the army and marine, and the promotion of the military officers. The board of war owes its institution to king John IV.

3. Desembargo do Paco *, the palace council. This is the supreme tribunal, to which are subordinate all the other courts of justice, and persons belonging to the law; and in which all royal edicts, patents, and grants, are made out. The president is always a person of great distinction, besides whom it has five counsellors, called Desembargadores, seven clerks, and several other inferior officers.

4. Mesa da Conscientia e Ordens, the court of conscience of the orders †; which was founded by king John III. after the

* It is so called, being always held in the royal residences, and continually accompanies the king.

† Is so called, from its being authorized by a royal warrant to represent to the king, when any thing is proposed contrary to his conscience. Faria y Sousa, in Europa, Port. Tom. II. Part. IV. ch. ii. n. 86.

grand-

grand-masterships of the three orders were annexed to the crown. It has a superintendency and jurisdiction over the orders of knighthood, universities, hospitals, chapels, and many other spiritualities. It consists of a president, five counsellors, (Deputados) who are all divines and canonists, three judges (Ouvidores), who must be of one of the three orders of knighthood, and three clerks.

5. Conselho da Facenda, the board of treasury, takes cognizance of the royal revenue, and appoints officers for the due management of it. It consists of three departments, each with a counsellor of state as superintendant (Veedor), besides three literary counsellors, (Desembargadores Letrados) together with four clerks (a).

S E C T. LV.

In the dependencies.

The Portuguese dependencies are under viceroys and governors; as the East-Indies under the viceroy of Goa, and Brazil under an officer of the like title at St. Salvador. The other provinces, islands, and forts, have

(a) Concerning all these councils and boards, see Faria y Sousa in Epit. Part. IV. c. xii. p. 376, 377, and Schmaufs, Part XI. p. 202, 203, &c.

governors, some of whom receive orders from the said viceroys, and others immediately from the king.

East-India has a court of justice at Goa ; and for Brazil there is one at St. Salvador, and a second lately erected at St. Sebastian*.

S E C T. LVI.

The internal constitution of the kingdom of Portugal stands in need of many amendments, for the country is very far from being sufficiently cultivated, and there is a total want of manufactures. These defects must be absolutely removed, that the specie which goes to foreigners for necessary goods may remain in the kingdom, the state recover itself from its languor, and set its land and sea force on a footing suitable to the safety of the nation and the dignity of the crown. The next thing is to keep their East and West-India possessions in a good state of defence, as hereon depends the principal branch of the national commerce ; and that of the East-Indies being extremely reduced, its restoration should by all means be taken

Domestic
state-inter-
est.

* This court was erected by king Joseph in 1754, for the inhabitants of Rio de Janeiro, and Minas Geraes. New Genealogical Historical Accounts, Part LIII. p. 475, 476.

in

in hand *, as hereby the Portuguese marine may again become respectable; which is absolutely necessary, for the defence of those remote countries†.

Foreign

Portugal bears so little proportion to most other powers, that it must not think of entering into a war with them, as it can gain but little, and be a considerable loser. This is particularly applicable to Spain, which by its situation and superiority is a very dangerous neighbour to the crown of Portugal. Formerly Portugal could rely on the assistance of France against Spain; but since the latter has been under a king of French extraction, Portugal has the united forces of both to fear, of which the last war has already been one instance.

From this alteration of circumstances, it behoves Portugal to keep itself closely united with Great Britain, being the power which can most readily and effectually assist it, as appeared in the year 1735 and 1762;

* The properest time for this would be, according to a remark in Campbell's Present State of Europe, ch. xii. p. 364, when the other European powers who have settlements in the East-Indies, shall be at war with one another. Such an opportunity was the war for the Austrian succession; but the Portuguese court neglected to make use of it.

† M. de Real, Science du Gouvernem. Part. I. Tom. II. p. 119, prophesies from several reasons, that the Portuguese will lose their East-India possessions, and that within no long time.

and

and such an alliance is the more natural and the more easily maintained, the Portugal trade being of vast advantage to England. While the English can enjoy it undisturbed, their assistance will never be wanting; so that both crowns are in some measure dependent on each other for their mutual emolument; and whilst this situation lasts, the alliance between them will be durable (c).

The very same causes which unite Portugal to Great Britain, require likewise a good understanding with the United-Provinces, as in case of necessity, they likewise can be serviceable to Portugal, and have the same motives for it as Great Britain.

The power of the see of Rome in Portugal is by much too great, and such a pernicious and disgraceful invasion of the sovereign's rights, that to free itself from subjection, would be no less for its advantage than its reputation. Indeed the present administration does not seem to receive the papal mandates with the former implicit obedience.

All the transactions between Portugal and the northern powers, as Denmark and

(c) Campbell's Present State of Europe, ch. xii. p. 363.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Sweden, relate only to trade; and the distance between the Portuguese court and Germany, Poland, Prussia, and Russia, does not admit of much correspondence.

S E C T. LVII.

Conventions with other powers.

The rights and obligations of the crown of Portugal, in respect of other powers, rest chiefly on the following conventions.

I. With S P A I N (*d*).

II. With F R A N C E.

1. Alliance of the first of June 1641 (*e*); and of 1701 (*f*); 2. The treaty of peace at Utrecht, the 11th of April 1713 (*g*); and 3. Of Paris, on the 10th of February 1763 (*b*).

III. With GREAT BRITAIN.

1. Treaty of amity and commerce of the 29th of January 1642; and of the 10th of

(*d*) These may be seen in the second chapter, § 67.

(*e*) Du Mont Corps Diplomat. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 214, and Mably, Droit Public de l'Europe, Tom. II. ch. xli. p. 240.

(*f*) Roussel, Supplem. au Corps Diplomat. Tom. II. P. II. p. 1.

(*g*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 353, and Mably, Tom. II. p. 136, 340.

(*b*) New Secretary of State for Europe, Part IX. p. 118.

July 1654 (i); 2. Alliance of the 16th of May 1703 (k).

IV. With the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

1. Armistice and alliance of the 12th of June 1641 (l). 2. Treaty of amity and commerce of the 6th of August 1661 (m), and of the 30th of July 1669 (n).

S E C T. LVIII.

Portugal has produced several eminent ^{Warriors and statesmen.} statesmen and warriors. The most celebrated were the constable Nuño Alvarez Pereira, and the secretary John das Regras, who lived in the time of John I. and were the two chief instruments of raising that prince to the throne. Under Emanuel lived Vasco de Gama, who discovered the East-Indies, and Alphonso de Albuquerque, who conquered a great part of that country; under Alphonso VI. Sancho Manoel, count de Villafior, Lewis de Vasconcellos e Sousa, count of Castel-Melhor, Anthony de Sousa de Macedo, one of the most learned men that ever appeared in Portugal; under Pe-

(i) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. I. p. 238. and P. II. p. 82. Mably, Tom. II. ch. xii. p. 333.

(k) Id. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 127.

(l) Id. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 215.

(m) Id. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 366. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 136, 137. et Tom. II. ch. xii. p. 335. suiv.

(n) Ib. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 114.

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(m) Id. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 366. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iii. p. 136, 137. et Tom. II. ch. xii. p. 335. suiv.

(n) Ib. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 114.

ter II. Lewis de Menezes count of Eri-
ceyra, Manoel Telles da Silva marquis de
Alegrete, both excellent historians,

(v) Fernando Cortes de la Cerda

the count of Castaneda

The principal Portuguese historians are
Bernard de Brito (a), Antony and Fran-
cis Brando, Antony Vasconcellos (p), and
Manuel de Faria y Sousa (q). The chief
of the foreign writers are John Baptist Bi-
rago (r), Lequien de la Neuville (s), de la

(a) *Monarchia Lusitana*, Tom. I. Alcobaca, 1597, (Tom.
II. Lisboa, 1609, fol. This work was begun by Brito, and
continued in a much better manner by Antonio and Francisco
Brandaon, to six volumes. The seventh was published at
Lisbon by Raphael de Jesus, in 1683; and the eighth by
Manuel dos Santos, who, as the seventh volume met with
a very bad reception, has given it quite a new form; but to-
gether with the ninth and tenth, it is not yet come to the press.

(p) *Anacephalasis*, i. e. *summa capita actorum regum
Lusitaniae*, Antwerp, 1621, 4to.

(q) *Epitome de las Historias Portuguesas*, en Bruselas,
1677, fol. The author published this work at first in Por-
tuguese rhimes, which is the reason of his being so florid
and poetical. A new edition of it was printed at Brus-
sels in 1730, with the following title, *Historia del Regno
de Portugal*; and the history is continued down to 1729. Be-
sides the *Epitome*, Faria y Sousa has published the *History and
memorable Actions of the Portuguese in the four parts of the
Globe*, a voluminous work. The first part is entitled, *Eu-
ropa Portuguesa*, Tom. I. Lisboa, 1678. The second *Asia
Portuguesa*, Tom. I. Lisboa, 1666, Tom. II. 1674. Tom.
III. 1675. fol. And the third, *Africa Portuguesa*, Tom.
unico, Lisb. 1681. fol. *America Portuguesa* was never pub-
lished, and is said to have been lost. *Biblioth. Lusit. Art.
Manoel de Faria e Sousa*.

(r) *Historia del Regno di Portogallo*, Lion, 1644, 4to.

(s) *Histoire Generale de Portugal*, 4 Paris, 1760. II.
Tomes, 4to.

do

Elede,

Eliezer (v), and Orbauer's (u) General History of Portugal; Antony de Herrera (x), Jeremy Conestaggio (y), John Baptist Birago II. Fernando Correa de la Cerda (a), the count of Ericeyra (b), Cajetanus Pallarellus (c), and the abbe Vertot (d), who wrote the Revolutions of Portugal.

SECT. LX.

Accounts of the state of Portugal have been published by Manuel de Faria e Sousa (e), Antony Carvalho da Costa (f), John

Authors who have written on the state of Portugal.

- (f) Hist. Gen. de Portugal, à Paris, 1734. 8 Tom. 12mo.
- (g) A German work, printed at Lelpfick, 1756. 4to.
- (x) Cinco libros de la Historia de Portugal y Conquista de las Illas Açores, en los años de 1582, y 1583. Madrid, 1591. 4to.
- (y) Historia della disunione del regno de Portugallo dalla corona di Castiglia. Amsterdam, 1647. 8vo.
- (a) Catastrophe de Portugal na deposição del Rei D. Alphonso Sexto, e subrogacao do principe D. Pedro, escrita por Leandro Dorea Caceres e Faria, Lisb. 1669. 4to. The author concealed himself under this fictitious name; he was preceptor to king Peter II. and afterwards bishop of Porto. (See Biblioth. Lusit. Art. Fernando Correa de la Cerda.) This work was translated into French under the following title, Relation des Troubles arrivez dans la Cour de Portugal, en 1667. et 1668. Amsterdam, 1674. 12mo.
- (b) Histoire de Portugal restaurado, Lisboa, 1680, 1698. 2 Tomes, fol. et ibid. 1751. 4 Tomes, 4to.
- (c) Bellum Lusitanum ejusque regni separatio a regno Castellensi, cum abrogatione super adjecta Alfonsi regis Lusitani. Lugdun. 1684, fol.
- (d) Histoire des Revolutions de Portugal, à Amsterdam, 1712. 8vo.
- (e) In his Epitome de las Historias Portuguesas, Part IV. and in his Europa Portuguesa, Part III. is contained a description of the kingdom of Portugal.
- (f) Corographia Portugueza e Descripção Topographica do famoso regno de Portugal, com as noticias das fundações

Jacob Schmaufen (g), and other (b) writers.

das cidades, villas, e lugares, que contem varoens illustres, genealogias das familias nobres, fundações de conventos, catalogos dos bispos, antiguidades, maravilhas da natureza, edificios, e outras curiosas observações, Lisboa, 1706, 1708, 1712. 3 Tomes, fol.

(g) The Modern State of the Kingdom of Portugal, and the Territories thereto belonging, Halle, 1759, two parts, 8vo. a German work.

(b) Among these we must reckon,

Annales d'Espagne et de Portugal, par Don Juan Alvarez de Colmenar, Amsterd. 1741, 4 Tomes, 4to.

Noticias de Portugal, por Manoel Severin de Faria. Declaram-se as grandes commodidades que tempore crescer em gente, industria, commercio, riquezas e forças militares por mar e terra. Lisboa, 1655, fol.

Relation de la Cour de Portugal sous D. Pedre II. avec des Remarques sur les Interêts de cette Couronne, et l'Histoire des plus considerables traiteux qu'elle ait faits avec eux. Traduit de l'Anglois, Amsterd. 1702, 2 tomes, 12mo.

The Ancient and Present State of Portugal, by John Stevens, London, 1705, 8vo.

Henrici de Cocceii Dissertatio de Justicia Belli et Pacis in Statu Regni Portugallici fundata; in ejus Exercitatione curios. Vol. I. p. 382.

Memoires Instructifs pour un Voyageur, Amsterd. 1738. 2 Tomes, 8vo.

Memoires de Portugal, dressez par le Chevalier d'Oliveira, Amsterd. 1741, 2 Tomes, 8vo.

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- German language, besides Germany, spoken in part of Switzerland and Lorrain, in Royal and Ducal Prussia, in the towns and among the gentry in Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia, in some particular parts of Poland, Hungary, and Transylvania. Often used by the northern powers in state-instruments, i. 93, 94.
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- Grandeos of Spain, the title of, introduced under king John. Their greatest privilege that of being covered before the king. Formerly divided into three classes. Take place of all officers of state. Put themselves upon a footing with the electors of the empire, and the princes of Italy. Captain and lieutenant-general made their equals in respect of precedence at court, by Lewis I. i. 183.
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- Great council of war of Spain, divided into two chambers, one takes cognizance of military affairs, the other of law cases. Counsellors of state, by their office, counsellors of war, i. 244.
- council, principal high court of France, next to the parliaments, and has nine presidents, fifty-four counsellors, and several other members. Its jurisdiction extends over the whole kingdom. Frequently opposed by the parliaments, particularly that of Paris, ii. 108.
- seal of the kingdom of France, kept by the lord chancellor, ii. 63.
- huntsman, monteiro mor, one of the principal court-officers of Portugal, i. 295.
- officers of the kingdom of Castile, were the chancellor, the constable, and the admiral, suppressed by the kings of Spain, all but their titles, i. 101.
- Greeks and Romans, the most celebrated of the antient inhabitants of Europe, i. 78.
- Greek, the strongest of all European wines, i. 75.
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- H**Abeas corpus act, petition of right, declaration of
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 ing, and enlarging king John's Magna Charta, ii. 235.
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 Hague, the place where the states-general hold their assem-
 blies, ii. 368.
 Hand of righteousness, one of the insignia delivered to the
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- Head of the church, a title assumed by Henry VIII. ii. 241.
- Head of the Teutonic order, called the Teutonic grand master. Has a seat and vote at the German diets among the ecclesiastical princes, i. 122.
- Heila, a volcano of Iceland, account of, iii. 9.
- Heir to the crown of France, stiled the dauphin ever since the reign of Philip VI. ii. 58.
- Hengist and Horsa, leaders of the Saxons, called in by the Britons against the Scots and Picts, ii. 189. Turned their arms against the Britons themselves, and drove them into Wales, 190.
- Henry V. king of England, conquered the greatest part of France. On marrying the princess Catharine, acquired a right to the succession, ii. 17.
- Heptarchy, seven kingdoms, gradually erected by the Saxons and Angles. United under Egbert king of the West Saxons, ii. 190.
- Hereditary stadtholder, captain-general and admiral of the generality lands, dignities conferred upon William IV. by the states-general, ii. 392.
- Herencia, Segovia, and some other towns of Castile, noted for their cloth manufactures, i. 237.
- Heresy of the Albigenses, appeared so dangerous to the see of Rome, that it undertook to extirpate them by arms and the inquisition, ii. 73.
- Herrings, swarm upon the coast of Scotland in spring and summer, ii. 176.
- Hetman, the commander of the Ukraine Cossacks, so called. Chosen by themselves. Must be confirmed by the czar. Post of, sometimes continues vacant, iii. 407.
- Hibernia and Ierna, antient names of Ireland, ii. 181.
- High courts of justice in France, next to the parliaments, and the great council, are the chamber of accounts, and the courts of aids and coinage, ii. 108.
- court of admiralty at Paris, held in the name of the admiral of France. Fines in the high court of admiralty, divided between the admiral of France and the king, ii. 121.
- offices of the crown, the court, and the law, still remain in Scotland, a privy-council and parliament superseded by the union, ii. 321.
- steward, a post of the highest consideration and power under the Carlovingian race, ii. 62. Suppressed by Philip II. 63. His functions divided between the constable and the grand maître de France, *ibid.*
- High and mighty lords, a title given to the states-general of

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- of the United Provinces by all the European powers, except Spain, ii. 380.
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- Highlanders of Irish extraction, ii. 200.
- Highness, title of, given to Frederick Henry, prince of Orange, by Lewis XI. I. king of France, ii. 397.
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- History of France, what the sources of. Complete histories of France, by whom published, ii. 165, 166.
- Historians, very numerous among the French. Partial and unexact, ii. 93.
- Holland, the most monied country in Europe. Gives law to other nations in the business of exchange, i. 138. Famous for its eminent painters, 405. The country low and swampy. Like the Zealand islands intirely level, ii. 339. Greatly improved by the industry of the inhabitants, 344. Province of Holland alone contains a million of inhabitants, 364.
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- of Scotland, somewhat small, ii. 176.
- Horse and foot militia of England, formerly amounted to 200,000. A new militia formed in 1757, ii. 283, 284.
- posts, first instituted by an edict of Lewis XI. in 1464, i. 148.
- House of Austria, alliance between it and France, formed in 1756. The branches of the house of Bourbon in Spain and Italy included in this alliance, i. 152.

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 Hugh Capet, founder of the royal family of France. French authors not agreed with regard to his extraction. Originally had no right to the crown, ii. 60.
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- Imposts on the subject, highest in France, Spain, and Holland, i. 139. So grievous in France, that they damp the industry of the people, ii. 139.
- Income, derived by the see of Rome, from the kingdom of Portugal, more considerable than that of the king himself, i. 301.
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- Independent and free countries in France, two in number, the counties of Avignon and Venaissin, and the principality of Dombes. The former belong to the see of Rome, the latter to the duke de Maine, ii. 10.
- Infantado, the estate assigned for the maintenance of the royal children of Spain so called, i. 199.
- Inferior courts of France, distinguished by the appellation of *prévôtés*, *mairies*, *chatellanies*, and *judicatures*, depend upon particular dukes and counts. From these an appeal lies to the district of provincial courts. From these to the upper-provincial courts and the parliaments, ii. 105.
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- Inhabitants of a country, different sorts of, i. 15. Number of, in different countries, 23, 24.
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- of Spain, computed at seven millions and a half, i. 179.
- of Portugal, computed at eighteen hundred thousand, or two millions of souls, i. 178.
- of France, said to have amounted to twenty-five millions in the year 1621. To twenty-two millions in 1733. In other years seldom exceeded nineteen millions. Computed at present by some at twenty, by others at eighteen, and by others at only seventeen millions. Causes of this population. Causes that obstruct a farther increase, ii. 30, 31.
- Inland tolls upon commodities, suppressed by Philip V. of Spain, in order to promote commerce, i. 139.
- trade of France, greatly facilitated by the rivers and canals. Promoted by the yearly marts and fairs of the principal towns, ii. 143.

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Inquisition, a great restraint to philosophy and divinity in Spain, i. 218, 219. One of the main pillars of the spiritual authority of Rome. At first only a temporary tribunal for suppressing the Waldenses and other heretics. Since made constant and perpetual in Spain, Portugal, Rome, &c. 120. First court of, held at Seville in 1480. Eighteen courts of, in the Spanish monarchy. Supreme court, held at Madrid, 211. Inquisitor-general, president of, ib. Supreme court of inquisition, how composed, 211, 212. Other courts of inquisition, how composed. Proceedings of the court of, 212, 213. Jews refusing to embrace Christianity, condemned by it to be burned alive. Those convicted of heresy condemned by it to be strangled. The possessions of the persons condemned, confiscated. Their descendants branded with indelible ignominy, 213.

— three courts of, in Portugal, at Lisbon, Evora, and Coimbra. A fourth court of inquisition at Goa. Constitution of the Portuguese courts of inquisition, intirely the same as in Spain, i. 303, 304.

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— of Cape Verde, possessed by the Portuguese. Sea-salt, the only product of, i. 265.

Island of Bombay, one of the principal settlements of the English East-India company, ii. 184.

— of Jamaica, abounds in sugar. Its number of sugar-mills in the year 1670, no less than sixty. Two millions of pounds of sugar made there every year. At present ten times the quantity, ii. 187.

— of Madeira, famous for its wine, sugar, and other products, possessed by the Portuguese, i. 165.

Italian language, the speech of European music, i. 93.

Junction de Meux mers, otherwise called the canal of Languedoc, the most astonishing work of the kind in Europe,

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rope, begun in 1666, and finished in 1680, under the inspection of Paul Riquet. Issues out of the Garonne to Besiers, and from thence to Cette, a sea port on the Mediterranean, length of forty French leagues. Construction of, cost thirteen millions of money. Carried on one hundred and twenty fathom under ground. Kept in repair by Riquet's heirs, who receive the profits of it, ii. 143. Jura, or Ila, one of the largest of the western islands belonging to Scotland, ii. 181.

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Keeper of the great seal, a new office, created by Henry II. of France, in 1551. That office has subsisted in France at the same time with that of lord chancellor, ii. 69.

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—— of Spain, subscribes his name only to letters to foreign princes, i. 193.

—— of Portugal's power, absolutely unlimited, except in settling the succession and the arbitrary imposition of new taxes, i. 282.

—— Dennis, one of the celebrated poets of Portugal, i. 312.

—— of France's prerogative, anciently under restraints from the states of the kingdom, ii. 36.

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—— of France, accounted the greatest king in Christendom. Kings of France, in virtue of certain bulls exempt from excommunication, ii. 54, 55.

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King Pepin, the first French monarch that caused himself to be inaugurated and crowned with religious ceremonies. Imitated herein by all his successors, ii. 56.

— of France, has the regale, or right of levying the incomes of the vacant dioceses, and disposing of all ecclesiastical employments belonging to them, till the new prelate has taken the oath of allegiance to the king. Regale extended to all countries subject to the crown of France, ii. 18.

— of France's ordinances, edicts, and declarations, obligatory throughout the whole kingdom. Must be previously registered in all the high courts of justice, ii. 104.

— of France, took upon himself the guaranty of the emperor's pragmatic sanction, for securing the succession to his dominions, i. 89.

— of France, became sovereign justiciary of that kingdom, upon the successive union of the dukedoms and counties to the crown, ii. 104.

— of France's household troops, the principal and best part of his forces. Established by Lewis XIV. Whole body consists of 12,000 men, ii. 110.

— in Europe, allow emperors no superiority over them, i. 113.

Kings of Arragon, in any disputes with their subjects, obliged to submit to a judge called El Justicia, i. 185.

— of Portugal, have of late too resolutely asserted their rights against the papal encroachments, i. 302.

— of France, formerly resided at Paris at the Louvre, ii. 61.

— of Sardinia, formerly held the scale between the houses of Austria and Bourbon. The union of those powers unfavourable both to him and the balance of Italy, i. 152.

King's-evil, ceremony of touching for, when performed by the king of France, ii. 57. This ceremony performed every week by Lewis XI. upon a certain occasion. King of France touch for other diseases besides the evil, ib.

— library at Paris, exceeds all the libraries of Europe in manuscripts. Charles V. the first founder of this library, ii. 98.

— printing-house at Paris, built by cardinal Richelieu. Cost 360,000 livres, ii. 100.

Kingdoms, hereditary or elective, i. 32.

— of France, surrounded with one hundred and twenty strong fortifications, ii. 115. By some eminent writers termed the first kingdom in the universe, 54.

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rope, begun in 1666, and finished in 1680, under the inspection of Paul Riquet. Issues out of the Garonne to Besiers, and from thence to Cette, a sea port on the Mediterranean, length of forty French leagues. Construction of, cost thirteen millions of money. Carried on one hundred and twenty fathom under ground. Kept in repair by Riquet's heirs, who receive the profits of it, ii. 143. Jura, or Ila, one of the largest of the western islands belonging to Scotland, ii. 181. Justices of peace in England, appointed by the king, ii. 277—294. Juverna and Iris, ancient names of Ireland, ii. 181.

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Keeper of the great seal, a new office, created by Henry II. of France, in 1551. That office has subsisted in France at the same time with that of lord chancellor, ii. 69.

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King of England's majority, how settled, ii. 239. Guardianship and regency appointed during the minority of, *ibid.* Regency, during the absence of, and in other cases, 240. Titles of, 240—243. Arms of, 243, 244. Coronation of, 245, 246. King's eldest daughter, title of, 246, 247. His supremacy over the church of England, 263, 264.

— Charles II. of Spain, constrained by the peace of Munster to renounce all claim to Portugal. At his death did not leave ready money enough to defray the charges of his funeral, i. 170.

— Recared I. first king of Spain that embraced the Roman Catholic religion, i. 184.

— of Spain, subscribes his name only to letters to foreign princes, i. 193.

— of Portugal's power, absolutely unlimited, except in settling the succession and the arbitrary imposition of new taxes, i. 282.

— Dennis, one of the celebrated poets of Portugal, i. 312.

— of France's prerogative, anciently under restraints from the states of the kingdom, ii. 36.

— of France, when said to hold his *lit de justice*, ii. 42, 43.

— of France, accounted the greatest king in Christendom. Kings of France, in virtue of certain bulls exempt from excommunication, ii. 54, 55.

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— of France, surrounded with one hundred and twenty strong fortifications, ii. 115. By some eminent writers termed the first kingdom in the universe, 54.

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- Kingdom of France, has fifty courts of admiralty. From all these an appeal lies to the high court of admiralty, ii. 121.
- of Portugal, maintained by the inhabitants to be founded by God himself, i. 289.
- of Prussia, had its rise in 1701, i. 87.
- of Spain, contains 1500 cities or walled towns, i. 161.
- of Naples and Sicily, Island of Sardinia, Dutchy of Milan and Austrian Netherlands, formerly belonged to Spain. All dismembered from it by the peace of Utrecht, in the year 1713. Spanish nobility sufferers by this change. Some years after Naples and Sicily fell to one Spanish prince, Parma and Placentia to another, i. 164.
- Knere, in Russia, on a footing with princes, i. 100.
- Knights, all the celebrated orders of, whether temporal or spiritual, owe their origin to chivalry, i. 100, 101. Some account of them, 116, 117. Farther account of them, 14, 15, 16.
- of Malta, have 250 commanderies in France, ii. 78.
- Knighthood, three remarkable orders of in Russia. Order of St. Andrew instituted in 1698, by Peter I. Ensign of the order, iii. 384.
- order of Catharine, instituted likewise by Peter I. in honour of his queen. Ensign of. This order conferred only on princesses and other personages of high birth, i. 385. Order of St. Alexander Newskoi, instituted by the same prince, but not confirmed till after his decease. Ensign of this order, *ibid*.
- remarkable orders of in Spain, are those of St. James, Calatrava, Alcantara, and Montesa. The grand masters of these orders formidable, even to kings. Ferdinand the Catholic prevailed with pope Innocent VIII. to invest him with the grand mastership of those three orders during life. The three grand masterships annexed to the throne by pope Adrian VI. knights of Malta, possessed of estates in Spain to the amount of 60,000 l. sterling per annum, i. 214.
- three religious orders of in Portugal. Several temporal orders of knighthood in France, ii. 68—72. Three orders of, in Great Britain, ii. 253, 254, 255.
- two celebrated orders of, in Denmark, viz. the order of the Elephant, and the order of Danebroke. The order of the Elephant, instituted by Christian I. Received its present form from Christian V. Number of the knights belonging to it fixed at thirty. Ensign of the order, account of, iii. 53. Order of Danebroke, its institution attributed

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La Junta del despacho Universal, the cabinet-council of Spain.

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— of the English, account of, ii. 280, 281, 282.

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— of Russia, account of. First step towards the improvement of Russian military discipline made by John Basil.

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- of Spain, the revolutions which they have undergone, i. 221, 222.
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- Laws of Russia, formerly there were very few written ones, iii. 399. A body of Russian laws, compiled in the year 1647, by order of the czar Alexis Michaelowitz, which with the ordinances of his successors, particularly Peter I. are rules for the courts of justice. A new code of laws drawing up by order of the present czarina Catharine II. Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland, retain their former laws. The Magdeburg law obtains in the Ukraine, 399, 400; 401.
- Las siete partidas, a new code of Spanish laws, published by king Alphonso XI. of Castile, in the year 1348, i. 222.
- Leyes de Toro, Spanish laws so called, from their being passed at the diet of Toro, published under Ferdinand the Catholic, in the year 1505, i. 222.
- Leghorn, Trieste, Ancona, and Embden, the most remarkable free ports of Europe, i. 148.
- Letter-founding, bookselling; and printing, flourishing state of, in Holland, ii. 196.
- Lewdness, one of the capital vices of the Spaniards, i. 174.
- Lewis de Camoëns, accounted the Virgil of Portugal, i. 312.
- XIV. acquired at the treaty of the Pyrenees great part of the Spanish Netherlands, with the county of Roussillon, ii. 21. Accused of aiming at the universal monarchy of Europe, i. 89.
- XV. received the crown of France, encumbered with a most enormous debt, ii. 22.
- Liberty, considered as the supreme good by the antient European nations. By their attachment to it they distinguished themselves from the Asiatics, i. 102.

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 — in Paris, twenty in number, *iii.* 98, 99.
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 — a great part of, laid in ruins by an earthquake and conflagration in 1755, i. 173.
 — wine, and that of the province of Alentejo preferred to the other Portuguese wines, i. 262.
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 Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, formerly belonged to the order of the *Enfiferi*. The two former given up by the last grand-master Gottard Kettler, to Sigismund Augustus king of Poland. Livonia and Esthonia, given up by Poland at the treaty of Oliva in 1660, *iii.* 215, 216.
 Lord chamberlain, or *camereiro mor*, one of the chief officers at the court of Portugal, i. 295.
 Lorrain, acquisition of, compassed by Lewis XV. by engaging to maintain the pragmatic sanction of the emperor Charles VI. *ii.* 22.
 Losses of the pope in Europe, occasioned by the reformation, abundantly compensated by the Spanish and Portuguese arms and missionaries in the East and West-Indies, i. 120.
 Lower courts of Spain, account of, i. 223.
 — and upper courts of justice in Portugal, account of, i. 315, 316, 317.
 Lusitania fell under the dominion of the Romans in the second Punic war, and remained so till the beginning of the fifth century. Alani, the first who seated themselves in Lusitania. Next the Suevi, then the Moors. Alphonso I. assumed the title of king of Portugal. The kingdom united to that of Spain by Philip II. Duke of Braganza proclaimed king by the Portuguese, who universally revolted from Spain, i. 268, & *seq.*

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Lutheranism prevails in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Livonia, Courland, part of Germany, Transilvania; is tolerated in England, the United Netherlands, and Russia, Poland, and Hungary. Under great restraints in the two last countries, i. 123.

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MACAO, city of, in a small island on the coast of China, possessed by the Portuguese, i. 266.

Madrid, the residence of the king's of Spain, i. 198, 199, 200.

Magazines of England kept at the Tower of London, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Woolwich, Hull, and Berwick, ii. 284.

Mahomet II. possessed himself of Constantinople, in the year 1443. i. 81.

Mahometan religion, professed in no part of Europe, except Turkey in Europe, i. 117.

Majority of the king of Spain, not determined by any law.

Term of a king of Spain's minority does not seem to exceed fourteen years of age. Regency and guardianship of a minor appointed by the king. Where no such provision has been made, the right belongs to the states of the kingdom, i. 191.

— of a king of France under the Merovingians, began at the age of fifteen. Under the Carolingians was deferred till twenty-one. King of France's majority settled by a perpetual edict at his entrance upon the fourteenth year. This afterwards made one of the fundamental laws of the kingdom, ii. 48.

Majorés domus, or mayors of the palace, chief officers of state under the Merovingian race. Took the whole administration into their hands, and left the kings only an empty title, ii. 62.

Malta, knights of, so called from the island of Malta, which Charles V. gave them for their residence. Possessed of large estates in Spain, Portugal, France, and Germany. Their grand-master considered as an independant prince by the European potentates. Only religious order in Europe, which continues to act up to its capital vow, to carry on a constant war with the Turks and African pirates, i. 121.

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 — at present cultivated in France with great success, ii. 98.
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 Mexico and Peru, very rich in gold and silver, i. 163.
 Middle ages, a remarkable vicious taste in printing, sculpture, and architecture, prevailed in them, i. 130.
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 — schools, two large ones for officers, founded by Lewis XV. ii. 116.
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— of a king of Spain does not seem to exceed fourteen years of age, i. 110.

— of a king of Portugal, time of, uncertain. Thought to cease upon the king's entering his fourteenth year, ii. 285.

Modern French lawyers study the law of nature; that of nations, the government of France in church and state, and the common law, ii. 97.

Monarchy of the united kingdoms of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, quickly dissolved, i. 81.

— compounded with aristocracy and democracy in the middle ages, almost the universal form of government in Europe. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it became in most states purely monarchical, i. 103.

Money and coins, account of, i. 53.

— trade, one of the chief European inventions for the improvement of commerce. Carried on by bills of exchange and banks i. 147.

— of Russia, account of. The oldest pieces coined in Russia called copecks. A hundred copecks called by the Russians a ruble. Gold pieces struck only upon solemn occasions amongst the Russians. Mints established by the czar at Moscow, Novogrod, Tweer, and Plescow, iii. 415, 416.

Monks, the various orders of, greatly instrumental in supporting the pope. i. 120.

Montpellier, physick publicly taught at the university of, about the close of the twelfth century, ii. 97.

Moors dispossessed of the whole country of Spain as far as the Pyrenean mountains, by Charles the Great, i. 166.

Mordomo mor, the lord steward, one of the principal officers at the court of Portugal, i. 295.

Moscow, capital of the Russian empire. Made the sovereign's residence in the XIVth century. Divided into four circles. Has suffered terribly by the inroads of the Tartars, 377—379. A patriarch of, instituted by czar Teodor Ivanowitz, in the year 1587, i. 118.

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Neutrality observed by the states-general in the last war between France and Great Britain, ii. 359.

New code, published under the name of Code Louis, in twelve volumes in 4to. in the reign of Lewis XIV. ii. 104.

New Jerseys, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, the only parts of British America, that do not immediately depend upon the crown, ii. 186.

News-papers, a French invention, i. 148.

Newton, at the head of the English mathematicians, ii. 273.

New World, thought to be disposed to shake off the yoke of the old world, ii. 188.

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Nine chambers compose the parliament of Paris. The first of these is called La grande Chambre. Five called Chambres des Enquêtes. Two Des Requêtes. One La Tour-nelle, ii. 106.

— cours des aids in France, that of Paris the principal, ii. 108.

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